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SPEECHES

OF

HENRY LORD BROUGHAM,

UPON QUESTIONS RELATING TO

PUBLIC RIGHTS, DUTIES, AND INTERESTS;

WITH

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTIONS.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. II.

PHILADELPHIA:
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PARLIAMENTARY REFORM.

INTRODUCTION.

PRINCIPLES OF PARLIAMENTARY REFORM—MR. CANNING—LORD
DUDLEY—MR. HUSKISSON—MR. WYVILL—MAJOR CARTWRIGHT.

As no subject has ever, in modern times, been brought into discussion, of importance at all equal to that which opened the whole question of our Parliamentary Constitution, so none ever excited so general and so lasting an interest among all classes of the people.

By the lapse of time great changes had been effected in the original structure of the representation, and changes far greater in the structure of the community represented. That which had originally been regarded as a burden from which all were anxious to escape, had become a benefit and an honour which every one was solicitous to obtain. The classes who had first monopolized the representation of the property and population of the country, no longer alone retained this distinction, other classes, formerly scarcely existing, having grown up to influence and power. The kind of property which alone, in the early period of our history, had any existence, the land, and which alone could in those days be represented, either by conferring the right to vote, or by giving the title to sit, was now rivalled in importance by masses of other kinds of wealth formerly unknown, and justly claiming equal regard. The corporate cities and towns, which anciently were governed by the voices of their citizens at large, had become new-modelled by usurpation, which the courts of law sanctioned under the apprehension that popular election must be attended with danger to the public peace; and the whole administration of their municipal affairs being now entrusted to small bodies, generally self-elected, these too engrossed the right of returning to parliament their representatives, who had originally been chosen by the people at large. But the greatest changes of all were in the electoral bodies. Towns formerly of importance had, in the course of time, decayed into insignificance; nay, some populous and wealthy places had become desolate and uninhabited, while all alike retained the privilege of being represented in parliament. So that instead of the people of those places being represented, the remains of ruined houses alone sent members to the legislature to consult "*circa ardua regni*." At the same time, mere hamlets had grown into towns of vast importance; and on land once desert, or the site of a few straggling huts, cities had grown up of prodigious extent, numbering thousands and tens of thousands of inhabitants, and containing within their bounds half the opulence and industry of the country. Yet all these continued unrepresented in Parliament, as if they were still desolate regions, while the right to vote was continued to those other places which had become the scenes of solitude and decay. Finally, there had taken place a general improvement in the knowledge and capacity of the people, by the progress of refinement; and all classes of the community had become both capable of exercising political rights and desirous of enjoying them, instead of being for the most part, so little solicitous upon the subject of public affairs, that they were as well pleased to have their representatives named for them by those who better understood such matters, as to interfere in the choice themselves.

It thus was manifest, that, though the constitution of Parliament was nominally the same as it always had been, in reality nothing could be more different in every

essential particular. To try this we need only change the language used to describe the structure of the Commons' House, and make it more general. The constitution intended that members should be chosen by real bodies of electors, and that the really existing cities and large towns of the realm should be represented. Was that intention worked out by places which have no inhabitants returning members, while the most populous cities of the empire were unrepresented altogether? It was the original constitution of Parliament, that while the counties were represented by knights of the shire, the cities should be represented by citizens, and the burghs by burgesses. Could that constitution be said to remain, when no members were chosen by the most important cities and burghs? (for it is a mere quibble to pretend that Birmingham and Manchester are not cities or burghs in a parliamentary view, because they are not legally so, not being bishops' sees, or incorporated by charter.) Or to try it by another test—who will pretend to doubt, that had Birmingham, Manchester, and Sheffield, existed in the time of the Plantagenets, writs would have been issued to them? Or who will maintain that any king ever would have issued his writ to the ruins of Old Sarum, and the mouldering foundations of Sarum and Blechingley, which cannot be traced by the eye? No more needs be urged to show how mere a play upon words it is to hold, that the parliamentary constitution of 1780 was the ancient and original constitution of the country, or that, in extending the elective franchise so as to give large towns representatives, which they want, and take from decayed places a right of voting, no longer of any use, or even of any intelligible meaning in their case, any departure whatever was made from the principles, or any violation at all offered to the spirit of our old parliamentary law. On the contrary, the reformers might with far more reason have contended, that they were the restorers of the original constitution, and that their adversaries were its enemies, because they sought to make perpetual the departure from it which time and accident had introduced, and to clothe with the authority of law those deviations from the law, which had unintentionally been introduced, and which had only passed without opposition, because they had been made so gradually as to escape observation.

The reformers, however, had a right to occupy much higher ground. They were entitled to hold, that, even if the plans which they propounded were a departure from the original frame of our mixed government, and a mere innovation upon its principles, they would not, on that account alone, be liable to insuperable objection; on the contrary, if new lights of experience, and the altered state of society, required a new adjustment of the political system, or even the adoption into it of novel principles, such a course might be not only justifiable, but requisite. This was the view generally taken by the more zealous and unsparing reformers, to whom the precedents of ancient times were so far from affording any authority, that they rather disinclined them to their use and application in the present age; and who, instead of regarding it as any argument against a proposed improvement, that it was an innovation upon the institutions of earlier times, considered the fact of anything having existed in those rude ages, as a presumption against its being fitted for the present day.

To these two great classes of reformers upon principle may be added a third, composed of mere practical men, who regarded the existing abuses in the representation as furnishing sufficient reason for altering and amending it. The power which it conferred on individuals of obstructing a good government in order to further some selfish designs; the undue influence over the Commons which it gave the aristocracy; the facilities which it held out to the executive branch of the government of corrupting the popular branch, and ruling in spite of the popular voice; in a word, the scope which it afforded for all the engines of intrigue, corruption, and oppression, to play upon the interests of the state, furnished ample reasons of the most practical kind for a reform—seasons, the result of which Mr. Pitt embodied in a sentence, when he said that the present system both prevented the country from ever having honest ministers, and honest ministers from continuing such, or doing their duty.

But how powerful soever all these arguments had been, and how general soever their acceptance with the reflecting portion of the community, they made but little progress until the public misfortunes during the American war; and the support

given to that inauspicious contest by the self-named representatives of the people, long after the people had pronounced their opinion very decidedly against the policy of the government, set men upon reflecting how their affairs were conducted, and how they who were intrusted with their management happened to pursue the course they took, against the will of their nominal constituents. This inquiry directed the attention of the country at large to the structure of the representation. Great public meetings were held to consider it. Associations of most respectable persons were formed to procure its reform. Men of the highest station in the country, and men who enjoyed its confidence in an extraordinary degree, joined with others less known, but of the greatest promise as statesmen and patriots, in demanding the needful change; and from that time, notwithstanding the untoward occurrences of after years, the question of Parliamentary Reform has always occupied a foremost place in the minds of the people, and in the deliberations of the legislature.

After it had made such progress as almost ensured a speedy success, at least to a considerable extent of reform, the alarm excited by the excesses of the French Revolution, and increased by the general sympathy expressed among almost all British reformers with the earlier leaders of the movement in France, for some years checked the progress of the cause in this country. Reform was artfully confounded with revolution by its adversaries; and to be a reformer, became synonymous with being a friend of anarchy, and hostile to the established order of things, ecclesiastical and civil. That these fears were wholly fictitious, it would be altogether absurd to assert; as it would be most thoughtless to deny that there existed quite danger enough of the reformers pushing too fast and too far their favourite theories, to make the greatest circumspection necessary for restraining their impetuosity, and preventing its mischievous consequences among a people for the first time vehemently excited to action by the contagious influence of the mighty popular movement which was convulsing the whole frame of society in France. But it is at the least equally certain, that nothing but gross misrepresentation acting upon ignorance and panic, could have succeeded in making every attempt to improve our institutions, be regarded as another name for indiscriminate enmity to our whole system of government; and every friend of reform, as an enemy of his country and her peace. The cause of order, and the stability of all our institutions, may safely be said to have suffered much more than they could gain, by the consequences of this delusion so skilfully and so successfully practised; and had Mr. Pitt, instead of abandoning the cause of reform, of which he had been the powerful champion in his earlier days, and joining in the persecution of his former fellow-labourers, the reformers, placed himself at the head of the more rational and respectable portion of them, whom temperate and gradual measures of amendment would have satisfied, he would have done more to strengthen and consolidate the system of our government, and to check the progress of a perilous thirst for mere change, than ever could be expected from coercive laws, even had they succeeded far better than they did, in stifling discussion upon the defects of our constitution, and repressing the exertions for removing them.

At length came the tranquillity of France under the government of Napoleon, and with it the cessation of the revolutionary war. A calm ensued among the parties which split this country. A moderate administration of government succeeded to the times when haughty, unbending, almost persecuting power, on the one side, demanded entire submission from the other, but only provoked hatred and resistance. The fear of revolution at home gave place to the apprehensions of invasion from abroad; and although men's minds were too much occupied with the question of peace and war, and expense and retrenchment, to renew their care about the constitution of Parliament, it seemed evident that, as soon as any accidental turn of affairs should once more direct their attention to this question, all the zeal of 1782 and 1790 would be again awakened, and no opposition to its progress could any more be offered by the real or the pretended alarms of its adversaries, grounded upon an allegation of revolutionary designs. Nor was the occasion very long wanting. The gross misconduct of affairs which led to the Walcheren expedition, and the shameful vote of approval expressed upon it by the House of Commons, following in less than twelve months after the scandalous disclosures of traffic in places and in seats, and the other iniquities brought to light in 1809, again roused the energies

of the reformers, and the structure of Parliament—that structure which led to the selection of such representatives as had done the deeds of 1809 and 1810—once more occupied the undivided attention of all political reasoners, and of many who in no other political question were wont to interest themselves, or to move at all.

Since that time the subject has been making a steady and an irresistible advance, scarcely ever interrupted by other subjects of more immediate and lively, though temporary, attraction; or, if interrupted for the moment, only to gain fresh accession of strength by new arguments derived from those discussions of more passing interest. While, however, reform was thus acquiring great and extended support, it had also raised up a new body of formidable antagonists. The friends of Mr. Pitt were no longer found ranged on its side—they all joined the ranks of its enemies; and the Anti-reform party, which had formerly been composed only of the old courtiers, the friends of Lord North, and Mr. Burke with his supporters, were now reinforced by the brilliant talents and great debating powers of Mr. Canning, the extensive knowledge and truly business-like capacity of Mr. Huskisson, the acuteness, the fancy, and the learning of Mr. Ward,* in conjunction with some of the leading members of the present administration. A steady and uncompromising resistance to all reform, was the leading principle of this party, more powerful from the abilities than formidable from the numbers of its members; and it formed indeed their principal hold over the Tory party at large, whose jealousy of them was, generally speaking, more than a match for its prudence in securing the aid it stood so much in need of.

It is difficult to overrate the effects of this resistance in obstructing the progress of reform. Mr. Canning and Lord Dudley especially, the men of the greatest talents in the party, were truly formidable antagonists. Possessing in an equal degree all the resources of accurate and extensive information, all the powers of acute reasoning and lively fancy, and all the accomplishments of the most finished classical education, they differed rather in the degrees to which habit and accident had fitted them for actual business, and in the strength of their understandings as influenced by their inclinations, than in the genius or the acquirements which might inspire or had trained their oratory. Mr. Canning was the more powerful declaimer—Lord Dudley had the more original fancy and the sharper wit; although in every kind of wit and humour Mr. Canning, too, greatly excelled most other men. Lord Dudley could follow an argument with more sustained acuteness, while Mr. Canning possessed a skill in statement which frequently disposed of the matter in dispute before his adversary was aware that his flank had been, as it were, turned, and thus spared himself the labour of an elaborate attack by argumentation. Both prepared for their greater exhibitions with extreme care, and wrote more than almost any other modern orators; but Mr. Canning had powers of *extempore* debating which Lord Dudley had either never acquired, or hardly ever ventured to exert, and he used those powers with the practised dexterity which long and constant exercise can alone bestow, sometimes in pronouncing the whole of a speech, and at other times, in the far more difficult task, the last attainment of rhetorical art, of weaving the extempore up with the prepared passages, and delivering the whole so as to make the transition from the previous composition to the inspiration of the moment, wholly imperceptible, even to the most experienced eye. In habits of business, and the faculties which these whet, or train, or possibly bestow, Mr. Canning had of course, all the advantage which could be derived from a long life in office acting upon abilities of so high an order. But that Lord Dudley only wanted such training to equal him in these respects, was apparent from the masterly performance of his official duties, which marked his short administration of the Foreign department in 1827.

Here, however, all parallel between these eminent individuals ends. In strength of mind, in that firmness of purpose which makes both a man and a statesman, there was, indeed, little comparison between them. Both were of a peculiarly sensitive and even irritable temperament; and this, while it affected their manner, and followed them into debate, quitted them not in the closet or the Cabinet. But in Mr. Canning the weakness had limits which were not traced in the nervous

* Afterwards Lord Dudley.

temperament of Lord Dudley. He suffered all his life under what afterwards proved to be a diseased state of the system, and, after making the misery of part of his existence, and shading the happiness even of its brightest portions, it ended in drawing a dark and dismal curtain over his whole faculties towards the close of his life. The result of the same morbid temperament was a want of fixed inclination—a wavering that affected his judgment as well as his feelings—an incapacity to form, or after forming, to abide by any fixed resolution—so that a man more amply endowed with the gifts both of nature and fortune than any other in any age, although he rose to great station, enjoyed an enviable share of renown, and never appeared in any capacity without raising an admiration great in proportion to the discernment of the beholders, passed through life with less effect upon the fate of his fellow-creatures than hundreds of the most ordinary men on whom, as he was well entitled, he daily looked down. The article in which his power has been the most felt, was certainly that of Parliamentary Reform, of which he was, with all his party, the constant and uncompromising adversary, and on which the last and perhaps greatest efforts of his genius were made.

With these men was joined Mr. Huskisson, than whom few have ever attained as great influence in this country, with so few of the advantages which are apt to captivate Senates or to win popular applause, and, at the same time, with so few of the extrinsic qualities which in the noble and the wealthy can always make up for such natural deficiencies. He was not fluent of speech naturally, nor had much practice rendered him a ready speaker; he had none of the graces of diction, whether he prepared himself, (if he ever did so) or trusted to the moment. His manner was peculiarly ungainly. His statements were calculated rather to excite distrust than to win confidence. Yet, with all this, he attained a station in the House of Commons, which made him as much listened to as the most consummate debaters; and upon the questions to which he, generally speaking, confined himself, the great matters of commerce and finance, he delivered himself with almost oracular certainty of effect. This success he owed to the thorough knowledge which he possessed of his subjects; the perfect clearness of his understanding; the keenness with which he could apply his information to the purpose of the debate; the acuteness with which he could unravel the argument, and expose an adversary's weakness, or expound his own doctrines. In respect of his political purity he did not stand very high with any party. He had the same intense love of office which was and is the vice of his whole party, and to which they have made such sacrifices, reducing indeed into a principle, what was only a most pernicious error, the source of all unworthy compliances, the cloak for every evil proceeding, that no one can effectually serve the state in a private station. One immediate result of this heresy was, to make Mr. Huskisson, like his leader, mistake place for power, and cling to the possession of mere office when the authority to carry those measures which alone make office desirable to a patriot, was either withheld or removed for preferment's sake. Yet whoever has known either of these three great men, and casts his eye on those followers whom they have left behind, may be justified in heaving a sigh as he exclaims, "*Eheu! quam multo minus est cum reliquis versari, quam meminisse tui!*"

Such were the adversaries whom the Parliamentary Reform had to contend with during the long struggle that began at the Walcheren vote, and only ended, if it indeed be yet ended, with the Bill of 1831-2. For although Mr. Canning's hostility to reform had been the most often signalized, yet his death in Autumn 1827, in no degree relaxed the opposition of his surviving followers, all of whom remained united upon this point. They no doubt departed widely from his course, in other respects; and they so far deserted the ground which he had latterly taken, as even to join those with whom his hostility had become the most personal, evincing their habitual love of place by holding office with the Duke of Wellington and Mr. Peel, after their new Whig allies had been somewhat cavalierly ejected from office by the court. Nor was it till the following summer that they received the reward due to such place-loving propensities, by being ejected as uncereemoniously as the Whigs had been before. Lord Dudley and Mr. Huskisson, with the lesser members of the party, Lords Palmerston, Melbourne, and Glenelg, were once more in opposition, and gradually resumed the Whig connection; but their hostility to reform remained unabated. Nor is it one of the least remarkable events in their history, that to a

reform question they owed the last misfortune of losing their places in 1838. They had taken the long-headed, not to say crafty, view of their new leader, Mr. Huskisson, that giving members to Birmingham on the disfranchisement of Retford for corruption, would tend more to prevent further mischief—that is, as he explained it—really effectual reform, than merely opening the franchise to the adjoining hundreds. On this the Duke and Sir Robert Peel differed with them, possibly deeming it a poor stratagem, and conceiving it better to oppose reform altogether in a fair and manly way, than by means of a trick. On this the parties quarrelled; and when the general question of Parliamentary Reform was debated in 1830, the remains of the Canning party gave it their unmitigated opposition, as they continued to do until, being in office with Lord Grey and other reformers, they all at once became root-and-branch adversaries of the existing system, and wholesale proselytes to the reforming creed.

Having noticed the chief adversaries of reform, it is fit that its most strenuous supporters should be mentioned. At the head of these stood Mr. Wyvill and Major Cartwright. The former was a clergyman, but possessed of an ample private fortune, and he had been one of the earliest coadjutors of Sir George Saville and Mr. Pitt. He was a man of sound and extensive constitutional information, of steady perseverance in whatever he undertook, a most ardent friend of civil and religious liberty, and one who made universal and unlimited toleration the fundamental article of his faith. For the rest, his views were somewhat confined, like all those of the earlier reformers, who, like their predecessors in the church, satisfied themselves with making the first step of throwing off Antichrist, and were regardless of the exact limits within which lesser abuses of practice or errors in faith might be confined. As the reformers of the sixteenth century at first left the real presence in their creed, so did the Savilles and Wyvilles allow rotten burghs to deform their system, and instead of giving representatives to the great towns, extended the number of county members.

Major Cartwright was a politician of another school. But it was as a restorer, not an innovator, that he came forward. Conceiving that the original constitution of the Gothic Parliament was that of annual elections, in which he was undoubtedly right, and also that previous to the statute of Henry VI. limiting the freehold franchise to forty shillings, all men had a right to vote, in which he was as clearly wrong—for the freeholders and burgesses only possessed the franchise—he insisted upon bringing back the system to that standard, and had as great a horror of triennial as of septennial elections. He was a man of unwearied perseverance and indomitable courage; of very moderate information, even on constitutional subjects;* of extreme devotion to one subject, and indeed one branch of that subject, and consequently, like all "men of a single idea," extremely apt to make gross mistakes in pursuing it. He was also extremely obstinate in his own opinions, and would neither reason nor listen to reason, but contented himself with repeating a set of phrases embodying dogmas, the acceptance or rejection of which he somewhat intolerantly and very blindly made the test of all men's honesty or dishonesty. When he had hit upon a view or an argument, he held it to be decisive; and even went so far as to offer Sir Samuel Romilly and Mr. Brougham (in 1812) the representation of Middlesex, which he supposed he could influence as he chose, provided they would take a test—viz. that Parliaments must be annual, and for this single reason, that otherwise every other person who becomes of age during a Parliament is deprived of his right to vote for so many years—to which both these gentlemen made answer, that this proved also the justice of monthly or even of weekly elections. His views were also somewhat tinged with pedantry; witness the horror of men becoming candidates, which he always professed, and which only led himself to a very unworthy mockery, when anxiously intent upon being elected for Westminster; namely, that of addressing a letter in the newspapers to a gentleman who lived next door to him, expressing how useful to reform his elec-

* A ludicrous instance of this was afforded by his arguing, in a pamphlet, from the title of Mr. Prynne's work, that *short Parliaments* were the old law of the land; for so he translated *Brevia Parliamentaria*, (Parliamentary writs), the title of the book being *Brevia Parliamentaria Rediviva*.

tion would prove, reiterating the statement of his reform principles, but adding an avowal that nothing should induce him to become a candidate. He failed on this occasion, and still more signally a few years afterwards, when, still refusing to be called a candidate, he daily appeared on the hustings, to receive few or no votes, and had committees in vain canvassing all Westminster in his behalf.

But with all these weaknesses, and with the yet worse principle to govern his political creed, that all reform must be confined to restoring the constitution of the Gothic ages, a principle which made him ever speak with veneration of Magna Charta and the times of baronial tyranny and general servitude, of which it was the license under seal; the Major was, nevertheless, a most invaluable advocate of reform, from the undaunted front which he steadily opposed to all its adversaries, the uncompromising boldness with which he stood by its friends, and the singleness of purpose with which it appeared that his whole existence was devoted to this one object. Among all the wavering of some, the backslidings of others, and the desertions of not a few, he kept his hopes unabated, and seemed even most sanguine when the prospect of success was the least cheering. No coldness of the people upon a subject in which their interest was the greatest, ever damped the ardour of his zeal; no diversion of other questions, which would, from time to time, attract the whole attention of the country, leaving none alive to the cause of reform, could ever draw him off for an hour from his great subject. Standing alone at times he would continue to address a hard-hearted generation with the sounds which no ears were open to receive. Ever ready to rally them when the least opening presented itself—never for an instant despairing of the good old cause—at seasons when the very mention of reform seemed to have ceased out of the land, and its name was a strange and uncouth sound to every ear, he would declare that he plainly desecrated the coming triumph of the constitution, and that he seemed to see “the days of Runnymede dawn once more.” They alone who have experienced how much less easy it is to find unflinching supporters than highly accomplished ones, for the people’s cause, so often betrayed by the people’s fickleness, can duly estimate the vast importance of such an advocate, and be fully aware how much more is to be hoped, in the conduct of great affairs, from dauntless courage and unwearied steadiness, than from the most brilliant gifts which nature can bestow, or culture improve.

In Parliament, the exertions of Mr. Grey,* and afterwards of Mr. Whitbread, Mr. Brand,† Sir Francis Burdett, Lord John Russell, Lord Archibald Hamilton, and Mr. Lambton,‡ ought ever to be enumerated with distinguished praise. After Lord Grey’s removal to the Upper House, Sir Francis Burdett became the most unwearied and powerful champion of reform, and the extensive influence which his station and abilities gave him with the people, had an incalculable effect in keeping alive their zeal for the question at times when extraordinary efforts were required to prevent its total extinction. Mr. Lambton’s motion in 1831, though his plan was exposed to many serious objections, was of very great service to the question, supported as it was by the influence out of doors, as well as in debate, which his talents, his spirit, and his fortune, gave to whatever cause he chose to espouse. But no one did more real and lasting service to the question than Lord John Russell, whose repeated motions, backed by the progress of the subject out of doors, had the effect of increasing the minority in its favour, insomuch that, when he last brought it forward in 1836, Mr. Canning, finding that he could only defeat it by a comparatively small majority, pronounced the question substantially carried. It was probably from this time that his party perceived the prudence of staying a change which they could not prevent, and of defeating the efficient reform which they so much dreaded, by substituting a paltry and elusory measure, of mere mock reformation. How long such a policy could have succeeded, had others of the Tory party agreed to attempt it, we have now no means of guessing. Happily the experiment was never tried.

On the proposal of the great plan of 1831, the whole country at once awoke from its slumber, and would, from that moment, listen to no terms short of unqualified and unconditional surrender of the ancient corrupt system. The history of that

* Now Earl Grey.

† Now Lord Dacre.

‡ Now Lord Durham.

measure is fresh in the recollection of all. The following speech was delivered in support of the bill, when it was before the House of Lords, in October 1831, and was then, by a majority of forty-one votes, rejected. Next summer it was carried by means not likely soon to be forgotten; and since that time a sufficient period has elapsed to show what have been the defects of the measure, and how far the system of our representation requires further amendment.

It is doubtful if the great feature of our reform, and that which chiefly recommended it to the country, has not been carried too far. In November 1830, when Mr. Brougham, then member for Yorkshire, in redemption of the pledge given to his constituents, gave notice of a motion for Parliamentary Reform, which was to have come on the day that the Tory ministry resigned, he announced to a meeting of members held in Lord Althorp's chambers, that he should propose to cut off, at the least, one member from every close borough, and to abolish some of those boroughs altogether; but that he greatly questioned the expediency of wholly abolishing this class of seats, regard being had to certain practical uses which they served. Their total extinction by the Bill may have been right; but then, provision has not been made for those practical uses thus lost. A public servant, as an Attorney-General, for instituting a necessary though unpopular prosecution, or a Chancellor of the Exchequer, for maintaining a requisite but odious task, may lose their seats, and thus hamper an administration—nay, even occasion its dissolution. Since the bill passed, it has actually happened that, the Attorney-General being excluded from Parliament during a whole session, all the measures for reforming the law were stopt for a year. It is pretty certain that some changes in the distribution of office, which are now much called for, cannot be attempted, on account of the determination, probably a temporary determination, of some populous places, not to return the official persons who now represent them. To remedy this great defect, the giving seats without votes to certain members of the government has often been proposed, and the subject was broached in the House of Lords, when the bill was under discussion. To enable a person to change his office without vacating his seat, would be a less violent change, and would answer some at least of the same purposes.

The number of small constituencies created by the bill is a yet greater defect. There are now above a hundred members chosen by towns which have not above two hundred voters. The evils of this are enormous. Each such burgh is as bad as the worst class of the old burghs, and by far the most corrupt of all, with the single but great exception of non-resident voters being no longer empowered to vote—an exception which limits the expense of the elections, without at all limiting the bribery practised in the several places. To remedy this glaring defect, it is certain that all householders whatever should vote, which was the plan about to be proposed by Mr. Brougham in November 1830. The restriction to ten pound householders is in every respect objectionable; and in none more than this, that it is a perfectly different qualification in different places—that sum answering to a large house and a good income, in remote country towns, while in the capital and neighbouring burghs, no house, even the meanest and occupied by the poorest person, is rated under double the amount.

But the gross inequality of the distribution is still more to be reprobated. A million of persons and an enormous wealth, in one or two counties, have no greater weight in the scale of Parliamentary influence than a few hundred poor persons in some obscure town. It is plain that while this inequality continues, little confidence can be given to the resolutions of the Commons as an indication of the public opinion.

The duration of Parliament is clearly far too long. Members chosen while the state of the Sovereign's life presents the prospect of a six or seven years' seat, never think of their constituents any more than if they had none. The most striking examples of this have been afforded during the past session. No minister could have obtained the very discreditable votes which the enemies of Negro emancipation, friends of the planters, have obtained, had a general election been nigh at hand. But when five or six years must elapse before the day of reckoning arrives, men of feeble principles, and greedy of promotion, or eager to share in the dispensation of public patronage, disregard the distant and uncertain displeasure of their

constituents, and only seek to escape the more swift wrath of the minister. Triennial Parliaments ought most certainly to be substituted for septennial.

The necessity of securing the electors by the plan of secret voting, seems at length to have forced itself on the minds of those formerly most reluctant to entertain the subject of the ballot. To tenants this would assuredly afford no protection; it seems, however, clear that it would be some shelter to tradesmen; and the scenes at the last general election appear to show that some such protection is necessary, if town elections are to be other than a farce.

But a large extension of the suffrage is the one thing needful; nor can any consistent reformer feel very clearly in favour of the ballot, while so few classes have the right to vote at all. The mere household qualification will clearly not suffice. That comprehends many of the least enlightened and least independent classes in society—persons always looking up to rank and fortune, and ever ready to square their conduct to the wishes of those who possess them; while it wholly excludes the better informed, more virtuous, and incomparably more independent, and less time-serving class of workmen who have struggled to educate themselves, and are less beholden to their employers than these are to them. No one, however, can desire to let in any ignorant and profligate person merely because he is twenty-one years of age, and not insane or convicted of a crime. Therefore an education qualification seems on every account to be the fittest. Lord Brougham's Education Bill provides for this in all votes respecting school affairs, nor can there be conceived a reason why it should not be extended to Parliament elections.

How far all or any of these salutary and even necessary improvements may be introduced into our new Parliamentary constitution within a few years, there are no means of conjecturing. The existing government have declared against all further change. Arrogating to the authors of the bill an infallibility never before ascribed to any men, and a power of foreseeing future events which no human being can be gifted with, they have decided that the unerring and prophetic wisdom of 1831 cannot be appealed from; and that all we now complain of must be endured, rather than alter a final measure, and charge its authors with the proneness to err, which had heretofore been imagined to be the lot of man. This delusion will continue as long as members of Parliament shall regard their own personal interest in promotion and patronage as of more value to them than the favour of their constituents and the good will of the people at large. But, in the meantime, the confidence of the country is wholly alienated from its government, and the representative body enjoys fully less of the public esteem and respect than those whom a few years ago, men of big professions and puny performance used to taunt with holding their power of making laws by an hereditary title. It would be well if their own election had bestowed a better spirit of conduct with a title supposed to be so much more valid.

S P E E C H
ON
PARLIAMENTARY REFORM.

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

OCTOBER 7, 1831.

MY LORDS,—I feel that I owe some apology to your lordships for standing in the way of any noble lords* who wish to address you: but after much deliberation, and after consulting with several of my noble friends on both sides of the House, it did appear to us, as I am sure it will to your lordships, desirable, on many grounds, that the debate should be brought to a close this night; and I thought I could not better contribute to that end than by taking the present opportunity of addressing you. Indeed, I had scarcely any choice. I am urged on by the anxiety I feel on this mighty subject, which is so great, that I should hardly have been able to delay the expression of my opinion much longer; if I had, I feel assured that I must have lost the power to address you. This solicitude is not, I can assure your lordships, diminished by my recollection of the great talents and brilliant exertions of those by whom I have been preceded in the discussion, and the consciousness of the difficulties with which I have to contend in following such men. It is a deep sense of these difficulties that induces me to call for your patient indulgence. For although not unused to meet public bodies, nay, constantly in the habit, during many years, of presenting myself before great assemblies of various kinds, yet I do solemnly assure you, that I never, until this moment, felt what deep responsibility may rest on a member of the legislature in addressing either of its houses. And if I, now standing with your lordships on the brink of the most momentous decision that ever human assembly came to, at any period of the world, and seeking to arrest you, whilst it is yet time, in that position, could, by any divination of the future, have foreseen in my earliest years, that I should live to appear here,

* The Marquess of Cleveland and several others had risen and given way.

and to act as your adviser, on a question of such awful importance, not only to yourselves, but to your remotest posterity, I should have devoted every day and every hour of that life to preparing myself for the task which I now almost sink under,—gathering from the monuments of ancient experience the lessons of wisdom which might guide our course at the present hour,—looking abroad on our own times, and these not uneventful, to check, by practice, the application of those lessons,—chastening myself, and sinking within me every infirmity of temper, every waywardness of disposition, which might by possibility impede the discharge of this most solemn duty:—but, above all, eradicating from my mind everything that, by any accident, could interrupt the most perfect candour and impartiality of judgment. I advance thus anxious and thus humbled to the task before me; but cheered, on the other hand, with the intimate and absolute persuasion that I have no personal interest to serve,—no sinister views to resist,—that there is nothing, in my nature, or in my situation, which can cast even the shadow of a shade across the broad path, I will not say of legislative, but of judicial duty, in which I am now to accompany your lordships.

I have listened, my lords, with the most profound attention to the debate on this question, which has lasted during the five past days; and having heard a vast variety of objections brought against this measure, and having also attended to the arguments which have been urged to repel those objections, I, careless whether I give offence in any quarter or no, must, in common fairness, say, on the one hand, that I am so far moved by some of the things which I have heard urged, as to be inclined towards the reconsideration of several matters on which I had conceived my mind to be fully made up; and, on the other, that in the great majority of the objections which have been ingeniously raised against this bill, I can by no means concur; but viewing them as calmly and dispassionately as ever man listened to the arguments advanced for and against any measure, I am bound by a sense of duty to say, that those objections have left my mind entirely unchanged as to the bulk of the principles upon which the bill is framed. If I presumed to go through those objections, or even through the majority of them, in detail, I should be entering upon a tedious, and also a superfluous, work: so many of them have been removed by the admirable speeches which you have already heard, that I should only be wasting your time were I once more to refute them; I should only be doing worse what my precursors have already done far better. I will begin, however, with what fell from a noble Earl,* with whose display I was far less struck than others, because I was more accustomed to it—who, viewing this bill from a remote eminence, and not coming close, or even approaching near, made a *reconnaissance* of it too far off to see even its outworks—who, indulging in a vein of playful and elegant pleasantry, to which no man listens in private with more delight than myself, knowing how well it becomes the leisure hours and familiar moments of my noble friend, delivered with the utmost purity of dic-

* Earl Dudley.

tion, and the most felicitous aptness of allusion—I was going to say a discourse—but it was an exercise, or essay—of the highest merit, which had only this fault—that it was an essay, or exercitation, on some other thesis, and not on this bill. It was as if some one had set to my noble friend, whose accomplishments I know—whose varied talents I admire, but in whom I certainly desiderate soundness of judgment and closeness of argument, a theme *de rebus publicis*, or *de motu civium*, or *de novarum rerum cupiditate*,—on change, on democracies, on republicanism, on anarchy; and on these interesting but somewhat trite and even threadbare subjects, my noble friend made one of the most lucid, most terse, most classical, and, as far as such efforts will admit of eloquence, most eloquent exertions, that ever proceeded from mortal pen. My noble friend proceeded altogether on a false assumption; it was on a fiction of his own brain—on a device of his own imagination, that he spoke throughout. He first assumed that the bill meant change and revolution, and on change and revolution he predicted voluminously and successfully. So much for the critical merits of his performance; but, practically viewed—regarded as an argument on the question before us—it is to be wholly left out of view; it was quite beside the matter. If this bill be change, and be revolution, there is no resisting the conclusions of my noble friend. But on that point I am at issue with him; and he begins by taking the thing in dispute for granted. I deny that this bill is change in the bad sense of the word; nor does it lead to, nor has it any connection with, revolution, except so far as it has a direct tendency to prevent revolution.

My noble friend, in the course of his essay, talked to you of this administration as one prone to change; he told you that its whole system was a system of changes; and he selected as the first change on which he would ring a loud peal, that which he said we had made in our system of finance. If he is so averse to our making alterations in our scheme of finance the very first year we have been in office, what does he think, I ask, of Mr. Pitt's budgets, of which never one passed without undergoing changes in almost every one tax, beside those altogether abandoned? If our budget had been carried as it was originally brought in, with a remission of the timber duty, and the candle duty, and the coal duty, it would have been distinguished beyond all others only as having given substantial relief to the people on those very trivial and unnecessary articles, I suppose, of human life—fire, and light, and lodging. Then, our law reform is another change which my noble friend charged the government with being madly bent on effecting. Scarcely had the Lord President of the Council risen to answer the objection raised against us on this score, than up started my noble friend to assert that he had not pressed any such objection into his service. My lords, I am not in the habit of taking a note of what falls from any noble lord in debate—it is not my practice—but by some fatality it did so happen that, whilst my noble friend was speaking, I took a note of his observations, of which I will take the liberty of reading you the very first line. "Change and revolution; all is change;

among the first—law.” I took that note, because I was somewhat surprised at the observation, knowing, as I did, that this Law Reform had met with the approbation of my noble friend himself; and, what was yet more satisfactory to my mind, it had received the sanction of your lordships, and had been passed through all its stages without even a division. My noble friend then told us, still reconnoitering our position at a distance, or, at most, partaking in an occasional skirmish, but holding himself aloof from the main battle,—he told us that this bill came recommended neither by the weight of ancient authority, nor by the spirit of modern refinement; that this attack on our present system was not supported by the experience of the past, nor sanctioned by any appearance of the great mind of the master genius of our precursors in later times. As to the weight of ancient authority, skilled as my noble friend is in every branch of literary history, I am obliged to tell him he is inaccurate; and, because it may afford him some consolation in this his day of discomfiture and anguish, I will supply the defect which exists in his historical recollections; for an author, the first of satirists in any age—Dean Swift, with whom my noble friend must have some sympathy, since he closely imitates him in this respect, that as the Dean satirized, under the name of man, a being who had no existence save in his own imagination, so my noble friend attacks, under the name of the bill, a fancy of his own, a creature of his fertile brain, and which has no earthly connection with the real ink and parchment bill before you—Dean Swift, who was never yet represented as a man prone to change, who was not a Radical, who was not a Jacobin, (for, indeed, those terms were in his day unknown;) Dean Swift, who was not even a Whig, but, in the language of the times, a regular, staunch, thick-and-thin Tory,—while enumerating the absurdities in our system, which required an adequate and efficient remedy, says:—“It is absurd that the boroughs, which are decayed, and destitute both of trade and population, are not extinguished;” (or, as we should say, in the language of the bill, which was as unknown to Dean Swift as it is now to my noble friend, put into schedule A.), “because,” adds the Dean, “they return members who represent nobody at all;” so here he adopts the first branch of the measure; and next he approves of the other great limb; for the second grand absurdity which he remarks is, “that several large towns are not represented, though they are filled with those who increase mightily the trade of the realm.” Then as to shortening the duration of Parliaments, on which we have not introduced a single provision into the bill—if we had, what a cry should we have heard about the statesmen in Queen Anne’s day, the great men who lived in the days of Blenheim, and during the period sung of by my noble friend, from Blenheim to Waterloo; how we should have been taunted with the Somerses and Godolphins, and their contemporaries, the Swifts and the Addisons! What would *they* have said of such a change? Yet what did the same Dean Swift, the contemporary of Somers and Godolphin, the friend of Addison, who sang the glories of Blenheim, the origin of my noble friend’s period,—what did the Dean, inspired by all the wisdom of ancient times, say to short-

ening the duration of Parliaments? "I have a strong love for the good old fashion of Gothic Parliaments, which were only of one year's duration." Such is the ground, such the vouchers, upon the authority of which my noble friend, in good set phrase, sets the weight of ancient wisdom against the errors of the reformers, and triumphs in the round denial that we have anything in our favour like the sanction of authority; and it turns out, after all, that the wise men of the olden time promulgated their opinions on the subject in such clear, and decisive, and vigorous terms, that if they were living in our days, and giving utterance to the same sentiments, they would be set down rather for determined radicals than for enemies of reform.

Then my noble friend, advancing from former times to our own, asked who and what they are that form the cabinet of the day? To such questions it would be unbecoming in me to hazard a reply. I do not find fault with my noble friend for asking them; I admit that it is fair to ask who are they that propound any measure, especially when it comes in the shape of a great change. The noble earl then complained of our poverty of genius—absence of commanding talents—want of master minds—and even our destitution of eloquence, a topic probably suggested by my noble friend's* display, who opened the debate, and whose efforts in that kind are certainly very different from those which the noble earl seems to admire. But if it be a wise rule to ask by whom a measure is propounded before you give it implicit confidence, it certainly cannot be an unwise rule to ask, on the other hand, who and what be they by whom that measure is resisted, before you finally reject it on their bare authority. Nor can I agree with a noble friend of mine,† who spoke last night, and who laid down one doctrine on this subject, at which I marvelled greatly. It was one of his many allegories—for they were not metaphors, nor yet similes—some of them, indeed, were endless, especially when my noble friend took to the water, and embarked us on board of his ship—for want of steam, I thought we should never have got to the end of our voyage. When we reply to their arguments against our measure, by asking what reform they have got of their own to offer, he compares us to some host, who, having placed before his friends an uneatable dinner, which they naturally found fault with, should say, "Gentlemen, you are very hard to please: I have set a number of dishes before you, which you cannot eat—now, what dishes can you dress yourselves?" My noble friend says, that such an answer would be very unreasonable—for he asks, ingeniously enough, how *can* the guests dress a dinner, especially when they have not possession of the kitchen? But did it never strike him that the present is not the case of guests called upon to eat a dinner—it is one of rival cooks who want to get into our kitchen. We are here all on every side cooks—a synod of cooks, (to use Dr. Johnson's phrase,) and nothing but cooks; for it is the very condition of our being—the bond of our employment, under a common master—that none of us shall ever taste

* Lord Grey.

† Lord Caernarvon.

the dishes we are dressing. The Commons House may taste it; but can the Lords?—we have nothing to do but prepare the viands. It is therefore of primary importance, when the authority of the two classes of rival artists is the main question, to inquire what are our feats severally in our common calling. I ought perhaps to ask your lordships' pardon for pursuing my noble friend's allegory; but I saw that it produced an impression by the cheers it excited, and I was desirous to show that it was in a most extraordinary degree inapplicable to the question, to illustrate which it was fetched from afar off. I therefore must think myself entitled to ask who and what be they that oppose us, and what dish they are likely to cook for us, when once again they get possession of the kitchen? I appeal to any candid man who now hears me, and I ask him whether, it being fair to consider who are the authors of the bill, it is not equally fair to consider from whom the objections come? I therefore trust that any impartial man, unconnected with either class of statesmen, when called upon to consider our claims to confidence, before he adopts our measures, should, before he repudiates us in favour of our adversaries, inquire—Are they likely to cure the evils, and remedy the defects, of which they admit the existence in our system?—and are their motives such as ought to win the confidence of judicious and calmly reflecting men?

One noble lord* there is whose judgment we are called upon implicitly to trust, and who expressed himself with much indignation, and yet with entire honesty of purpose, against this measure. No man is, in my opinion, more single-hearted; no man more incorruptible. But in his present enmity to this bill, which he describes as pregnant with much mischief to the constitution, he gives me reason to doubt the soundness of the resolution which would take him as a guide, from the fact of his having been not more than five or six months ago most friendly to its provisions, and expressed the most unbounded confidence in the government which proposed it. Ought not this to make us pause before we place our consciences in his keeping—before we surrender up our judgment to his prudence—before we believe in his cry that the bill is revolution, and the destruction of the empire,—when we find the same man delivered diametrically opposite opinions only six months ago?

The Earl of WINCHELSEA here shouted out "No."

The LORD CHANCELLOR—Then I have been practised upon, if it is not so: and the noble earl's assertion should be of itself sufficient to convince me that I have been practised on. But I can assure the noble earl that this has been handed to me as an extract from a speech which he made to a meeting of the county of Kent, held at Maidstone, on the 24th of last March:—"They have not got reform yet; but when the measure does come, as I am persuaded it will come, into the law of the land—" (a loud cry of "No," from the opposition lords).—Then if noble lords will not let me proceed quietly, I must

* Lord Winchelsea.

begin again, and this time I will go further back. The speech represents the noble earl to have said, "His Majesty's government is entitled to the thanks of the country. Earl Grey, with his distinguished talents, unites a political honesty not to be surpassed, and leaves behind him, at an immeasurable distance, those who have abandoned their principles and deceived their friends. The noble lord is entitled to the eternal gratitude of his country, for the manner in which he has brought forward this question. I maintain, that he deserves the support of the country at large." And, my lords, the way in which I was practised on to believe that all this praise was not referable to the timber duties, but to reform, I shall now explain. It is in the next passage of the same speech:—"They have not got reform yet; but when the measure does come, as I am persuaded it will come, into the law of the land, it will consolidate, establish, and strengthen our glorious constitution; and not only operate for the general welfare and happiness of the country, but will also render an act of justice to the great and influential body of the people. The measure has not yet been introduced to that House of which I am a member." (Lord Winchelsea and his friends here cheered loudly.) Ay, but it had been debated in the House of Commons for near a month—it had been published in all books, pamphlets, and newspapers—it had been discussed in all companies and societies—and I will undertake to assert, that there was not one single man in the county of Kent, who did not know that Lord John Russell's bill was a bill for Parliamentary reform. The speech thus concludes:—"When the bill is brought forward in that House of which I am a member, I shall be at my post, ready to give it my most hearty and cordial"—opposition?—no,—"support." But why do I allude to this speech at all? Merely to show, that if those who oppose the bill say to us, "Who are you that propound it?" and make our previous conduct a ground for rejecting it, through distrust of its authors, we have a right to reply to them with another question, and to ask, "Who are you that resist it, and what were your previous opinions regarding it?"

Another noble lord* has argued this question with great ability and show of learning; and if we are to take him as our guide, we must also look at the panacea which he provides for us in case of rejection. That noble lord, looking around him on all sides—surveying what had occurred in the last forty or fifty years—glancing above him and below him, around him and behind him—watching every circumstance of the past—anticipating every circumstance of the future—scanning every sign of the times—taking into his account all the considerations upon which a lawgiver ought to reckon—regarding also the wishes, the vehement desires, not to say absolute demands, of the whole country for some immediate reform—concentrates all his wisdom in this proposition—the result, the *practical result* of all his deliberations, and all his lookings about, and all his scannings of circumstances—the whole produce of his thoughts, by the value of

* Lord Mansfield.

which you are to try the safety of his counsels—namely, that you should suspend all your operations on this bill for two years, and, I suppose, two days, to give the people—what? breathing time. The noble lord takes a leaf out of the book of the noble duke near him—a leaf, which I believe the noble duke himself would now wish cancelled. The noble duke, shortly before he proposed the great measure of Catholic emancipation, had said—"Before I can support that measure, I should wish that the whole question might sink into oblivion." But the proposition of the noble earl, though based on the same idea, goes still further. "Bury," says he, "this measure of reform in oblivion for two years and two days, and then see, good people, what I will do for you." And then what will the noble lord do for the good people?—Why, nothing—neither more nor less than nothing. We, innocents that we were, fancied that the noble lord must, after all his promises, really mean to do something; and thought he had said somewhat of bribery—of doing a little about bribery—which was his expression; but when we mentioned our supposition, that he really meant to go as far as to support a bill for the more effectual prevention of bribery at elections, the noble lord told us he would do no such thing.

The EARL OF MANSFIELD.—I gave no opinion on the point.

The LORD CHANCELLOR.—Exactly so. The noble lord reserves his opinion as to whether he would put down bribery for two years and two days; and when they are expired, he, peradventure, may inform us whether he will give us leave to bring in a bill to prevent bribery; not all kinds of bribery—that would be radical work—but as far as the giving away of ribands goes, leaving beer untouched, and agreeably to the venerable practice of the olden time.

Another noble lord, a friend of mine, whose honesty and frankness stamp all he says with still greater value than it derives from mere talent,* would have you believe that all the petitions, under which your table now groans, are indeed for reform, but not for this bill, which he actually says the people dislike. Now is not this a droll way for the people to act, if we are to take my noble friend's statement as true? First of all, it is an odd time they have taken to petition for reform, if they do not like this bill. I should say that if they petition for reform, whilst this particular measure is passing through the House, it is a proof that the bill contains the reform they want. Surely, when I see the good men of this country—the intelligent and industrious classes of the community—now coming forward, not by thousands but by hundreds of thousands, I can infer nothing from their conduct, but that this is the bill, and the only bill, for which they petition? But if they really want some other than the bill proposes, is it not still more unaccountable that they should one and all petition, not for that other reform, but for this very measure? The proposition of my noble friend is, that they love reform in general, but hate this

* Lord Wharncliffe.

particular plan; and the proof of it is this, that their petitions all pray earnestly for this particular plan, and say not a word of general reform. Highly as I prize the integrity of my noble friend—much as I admire his good sense on other occasions—I must say, that on this occasion I deservy not his better judgment, and I estimate how far he is a safe guide either as a witness to facts, or as a judge of measures, by his success in the present instance; in either capacity, I cannot hesitate in recommending your lordships not to follow him. As a witness to facts, never was failure more complete. The bill, said he, has no friends anywhere; and he mentioned Bond-street as one of his walks, where he could not enter a shop without finding its enemies abound. No sooner had Bond-street escaped his lips than up comes a petition to your lordships from nearly all its shopkeepers, affirming that their sentiments have been misrepresented, for they are all champions of the bill. My noble friend then says, “Oh, I did not mean the shopkeepers of Bond-street in particular; I might have said any other street, as St. James’s equally.” No sooner does that unfortunate declaration get abroad, than the shopkeepers of St. James’s-street are up in arms, and forth comes a petition similar to that from Bond-street. My noble friend is descried moving through Regent-street, and away scamper all the inhabitants, fancying that he is in quest of anti-reformers—sign a requisition to the churchwardens—and the householders, one and all, declare themselves friendly to the bill. Whither shall he go—what street shall he enter, in what alley shall he take refuge—since the inhabitants of every street, and lane, and alley, feel it necessary, in self-defence, to become signers and petitioners, as soon as he makes his appearance among them? If harassed by reformers on land, my noble friend goes down to the water, the thousand reformers greet him, whose petition* I this day presented to your lordships. If he were to get into a hackney coach, the very coachmen and their attendants would feel it their duty to assemble and petition. Wherever there is a street, an alley, a passage, nay, a river, a wherry, or a hackney coach, these, because inhabited, become forbidden and *tabooed* to my noble friend. I may meet him not on “the accustomed hill,” for Hay-hill, though short, has some houses on its slope, but on the south side of Berkeley-square, wandering “remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow,”—for there he finds a street without a single inhabitant, and therefore, without a single friend of the bill. If, in despair, he shall flee from the town to seek the solitude of the country, still will he be pursued by cries of “Petition, petition! The bill, the bill!” His flight will be through villages placarded with “The Bill”—his repose at inns holden by landlords who will present him with the bill—he will be served by reformers in the guise of waiters—pay tribute at gates where petitions lie for signing—and plunge into his own domains to be overwhelmed with the Sheffield petition, signed by 10,400 friends of the bill.

* Lambeth.

"Me miserable! which way shall I fly
Infinite wrath and infinite despair?
Which way I fly, Reform—myself Reform!"

for this is the most serious part of the whole—my noble friend is himself, after all, a reformer. I mention this to show that he is not more a safe guide on matters of opinion than on matters of fact. He is a reformer—he is not even a bit-by-bit reformer—not even a gradual reformer—but that which at any other time than the present would be called a wholesale, and even a radical reformer. He deems that no shadowy unsubstantial reform—that nothing but an effectual remedy of acknowledged abuses, will satisfy the people of England and Scotland; and this is a fact to which I entreat the earnest and unremitting attention of every man who wishes to know what guides are safe to follow on this subject. Many now follow men who say that reform is necessary, and yet object to this bill as being too large; that is, too efficient. This may be very incorrect; but it is worse; it is mixed up with a gross delusion, which can never deceive the country; for I will now say, once for all, that every one argument which has been urged by those leaders is as good against moderate reform as it is against this bill. Not a single reason they give, not a topic they handle, not an illustration they resort to, not a figure of speech they use, not even a flower they fling about, that does not prove or illustrate the position of "*no reform*." All their speeches, from beginning to end, are railing against the smallest as against the greatest change, and yet all the while they call themselves reformers! Are they then safe guides for any man who is prepared to allow any reform, however moderate, of any abuse, however glaring?

Of another noble earl,* whose arguments, well selected and ably put, were yet received with such exaggerated admiration by his friends as plainly showed how pressing were their demands for a tolerable defender, we have heard it said, again and again, that no answer whatever has been given to his speech. I am sure I mean no disrespect to that noble earl, when I venture to remark the infinite superiority in all things, but especially in argument, of such speeches as those of the noble marquis and the noble viscount.† The former, in his most masterly answer, left but little of the speech for any other antagonist to destroy. The latter, while he charmed us with the fine eloquence that pervaded his discourse, and fixed our thoughts by the wisdom and depth of reflection that informed it, won all hearers by his candour and sincerity. Little, indeed, have they left for me to demolish; yet if anything remain, it may be as well we should take it to pieces. But I am first considering the noble earl in the light of one professing to be a safe guide for your lordships. What then are his claims to the praise of calmness and impartiality? For the constant cry against the government is, "You are hasty, rash, intemperate men. You know not what you do; your adversaries are the true state physicians; look at their considerate deportment; imitate

* Lord Harrowby. † Marquis Lansdowne. ‡ Viscount Melbourne.

their solemn caution." This is the sort of thing we hear in private as well as public. "See such an one—*he* is a man of prudence, and a discreet (the olden times called such a *sad*) man; he is not averse to all innovation, but dislikes precipitancy; he is calm; just to all sides alike; never gives a hasty opinion; a safe one to follow; look how *he* votes." I have done this on the present occasion; and, understanding the noble earl might be the sort of personage intended, I have watched him. Common consistency was of course to be at all events expected in this safe model—some connection between the premises and conclusion, the speech and the vote. I listened to the speech, and also, with many others, expected that an avowal of all, or nearly all, the principles of the bill would have ended in a vote for the second reading, which might suffer the committee to discuss its details, the only subject of controversy with the noble earl. But no such thing; he is a reformer, approves the principle, objecting to the details, and, therefore, he votes against it in the lump, details, principle and all. But soon after his own speech closed, he interrupted another, that of my noble and learned friend,* to give us a marvellous sample of calm and impartial judgment. What do you think of the cool head—the unruffled temper—the unbiassed mind of that man—most candid and most acute as he is, when not under the domination of alarm—who could listen without even a gesture of disapprobation to the speech of one noble lord,† professedly not extemporaneous, for he, with becoming, though unnecessary modesty, disclaims the faculty of speaking off-hand, but elaborately prepared, in answer to a member of the other House, and in further answer to a quarto volume, published by him—silent and unmoved, could hear another speech, made up of extracts from the House of Commons' debates—could listen and make no sign when a noble marquis‡ referred to the House of Commons' speeches of my noble friend by his House of Commons' name, again and again calling him Charles Grey without even the prefix of Mr.; nay, could *himself* repeatedly comment upon those very speeches of the other House—what will your lordships say of the fatal effects of present fear, in warping and distorting a naturally just mind, when you find this same noble earl interrupt the chancellor of Ireland, because he most regularly, most orderly, referred to the public conduct of a right honourable baronet,§ exhibited in a former Parliament, and now become a matter of history? Surely, surely, nothing more is wanted to show that all the rashness—all the heedlessness, all the unreflecting precipitancy, is not to be found upon the right hand of the woolsack; and that they who have hurried across the sea, in breathless impatience, to throw out the bill, might probably, had they been at home, and allowed themselves time for sober reflection, have been found among the friends of a measure which they now so acrimoniously oppose! So much for the qualifications of the noble lords to act safely as our guides, according to the general view of the ques-

* Lord Plunkett.

‡ Marquis Londonderry.

† Lord Mansfield.

§ Sir R. Peel.

tion as one of mere authority, taken by my noble friend.* But I am quite willing to rest the subject upon a higher ground, and to take it upon reason, and not upon authority. I will therefore follow the noble earl somewhat more closely through his argument, the boast of our antagonists.

He began with historical matter, and gave a very fair and manly explanation of his family's connection with the Borough of Tiverton. This, he said, would set him *rectus in curia*, as he phrased it. If by this he meant that he should thence appear to have no interest in opposing the Bill, I cannot agree with him; but certainly his narrative, coupled with a few additions by way of reference, which may be made to it, throws considerable light upon the system of rotten boroughs. The influence by which his family have so long returned the two members, is, it seems, personal, and in no way connected with property. This may be very true; for certainly the noble lord has no property within a hundred miles of the place; yet, if it is true, what becomes of the cry, raised by his lordship, about property? But let that pass—the influence then is personal—ay, but it may be personal, and yet be *official* also. The family of the noble earl has for a long series of years been in high office, ever since the time when its founder also laid the foundations of the borough connection, as Solicitor-General. By some accident or other, they have always been connected with the government, as well as the borough. I venture to suspect that the matter of patronage may have had some share in cementing the attachment of the men of Tiverton to the house of Ryder. I take leave to suggest the bare possibility of many such men having always held local and other places—of the voters and their families having always got on in the world through that patronage. If it should turn out that I am right, there may be no very peculiar blame imputable to the noble earl and his Tiverton supporters; but it adds one to the numberless proofs that the borough system affords endless temptations to barter political patronage for Parliamentary power—to use official influence for the purpose of obtaining seats in the Commons, and, by means of those seats, to retain that influence.

The noble earl complained that the Reform Bill shut the doors of Parliament against the eldest sons of Peers, and thus deprived our successors of the best kind of political education. My lords, I freely admit the justice of his panegyric upon this constitutional training, by far the most useful which a statesman can receive; but I deny that the measure proposed will affect it—will obstruct the passage to the House of Commons; it will rather clear and widen it to all, who, like your lordships' sons, ought there to come. My noble friend,† who so admirably answered the noble earl, in a speech distinguished by the most attractive eloquence, and which went home to every heart from the honest warmth of feeling, so characteristic of his nature, that breathed through it—has already destroyed this topic by referring to the most notorious facts, by simply enumerating the open counties

* Lord Dudley.

† Lord Harrowby.

‡ Lord Goderich.

represented by Peers' eldest sons. But I had rather take one instance for illustration, because an individual case always strikes into the imagination, and rivets itself deep in the memory. I have the happiness of knowing a young nobleman—whom to know is highly to esteem—a more virtuous, a more accomplished I do not know—nor have any of your lordships, rich as you are in such blessings, any arrow in all your quivers of which you have more reason to be proud. He sat for a nomination borough; formed his own opinion; decided for the bill; differed with his family—they excluded him from Parliament, closing against him, at least that avenue to a statesman's best education, and an heir-apparent's most valued preparation for discharging the duties of the Peerage. How did this worthy scion of a noble stock seek to re-open the door thus closed, and resume his political schooling, thus interrupted by the borough patrons? Did he resort to another close borough, to find an avenue like that which he had lost under the present system, and long before the wicked bill had prevented young lords from duly finishing their Parliamentary studies? No such thing. He threw himself upon a large community—canvassed a populous city—and started as a candidate for the suffrages of thousands, on the only ground which was open to such solicitation—he avowed himself a friend of the bill. *Mutato nomine de te.* The borough that rejected him was Tiverton—the young nobleman was the heir of the house of Ryder—the patron was the noble earl, and the place to which the ejected member resorted for the means of completing his political education in one house, that he might one day be the ornament of the other, was no small, rotten, nomination borough, but the great town of Liverpool.

LORD HARROWBY begged to set the noble and learned lord right. He was himself abroad at the time, fifteen hundred miles off; and his family had nothing to do with the transaction. His son was not returned, because he did not offer himself. [*Cries of Hear!*]

The LORD CHANCELLOR continued.—I hope the noble lords will themselves follow the course their cries seem to recommend, and endeavour to *hear*. Excess of noise may possibly deter some speakers from performing their duty; but my political education (of which we are now speaking) has been in the House of Commons; my habits were formed there; and no noise will stop me. I say so in tenderness to the noble persons who are so clamorous; and that, thus warned, they may spare their own lungs those exertions which can have no effect except on my ears, and perhaps to make me more tedious. As to the noble earl's statement, by way of setting me right, it is wholly unnecessary, for I knew he was abroad—I had represented him as being abroad, and I had never charged him with turning out his son. The family, however, must have done it. (Lord Harrowby said, *No.*) Then so much the better for my argument against the system, for then the borough itself had flung him out, and prevented him from having access to the political school. I believe the statement that the family had nothing to do with it, because the noble earl makes it; but it would take a great deal of statement to make me believe that

neither the patron nor the electors had anything to do with the exclusion, and that the member had voluntarily given up his seat, and indeed his office with his seat, beside abandoning his political studies, when he could have continued them as representative of his father's borough.

But the next argument of the noble earl I am, above all, anxious to grapple with, because it brings me at once to a direct issue with him, upon the great principle of the measure. The grand charge iterated by him, and re-echoed by his friends, is, that population, not property, is assumed, by the bill, as the basis of representation. Now, this is a mere fallacy, and a gross fallacy. I will not call it a wilful misstatement; but I will demonstrate that two perfectly different things are, in different parts of this short proposition, carefully confounded, and described under the same equivocal name. If, by basis of representation is meant the ground upon which it was deemed right, by the framers of the bill, that some places should send members to Parliament, and others not, then I admit that there is some foundation for the assertion; but then it only applies to the new towns, and also it has no bearing whatever upon the question. For the objection—and I think the sound objection—to taking mere population as a criterion in giving the elective franchise, is, that such a criterion gives you electors without a qualification, and is, in fact, universal suffrage. And herein, my lords, consists the grievous unfairness of the statement I am sifting; it purposely mixes together different matters, and clothes them with an ambiguous covering, in order, by means of the confusion and the disguise, to insinuate that universal suffrage is at the root of the bill. Let us strip off this false garb. Is there in the bill anything resembling universal suffrage? Is it not framed upon the very opposite principles? In the counties, the existing qualification by freehold is retained in its fullest extent; but the franchise is extended to the other kinds of property, copyhold and leasehold. It is true that tenants at will are also to enjoy it, and their estate is so feeble, in contemplation of law, that one can scarce call it property. But whose fault is that? Not the authors of the bill, for they deemed that terms of years alone should give a vote; but they were opposed and defeated in this by the son of my noble friend* near me, and his fellow labourers against the measure. Let us now look to the borough qualification. (*Some noise from conversation here took place.*) Noble lords must be aware that the chancellor, in addressing your lordships, stands in a peculiar situation. He alone speaks among his adversaries. Other peers are at least secure against being interrupted by the conversation of those in their immediate neighbourhood. And for myself, I had far rather confront any distant cheers, however hostile, than be harassed by the talk of those close by. No practice in the House of Commons can ever accustom a person to this mode of annoyance, and I expect it, in fairness, to cease.

To resume the subject where I was forced to break off.—I utterly

* The Duke of Buckingham.

deny that population is the test, and property disregarded, in arranging the borough representation. The franchise is conferred upon householders only. Is not this a restriction? Even if the right of voting had been given to all householders, still the suffrage would not have been universal; it would have depended on property, not on numbers; and it would have been a gross misrepresentation to call population the basis of the bill. But its framers restricted that generality, and determined that property, to a certain considerable amount, should alone entitle to elect. It is true they did not take freehold tenure of land, as that qualification is inconsistent with town rights—nor did they take a certain amount of capital as the test—for that, beside its manifest inconvenience, would be a far more startling novelty than any the measure can be charged with. But the renting a £10 house is plainly a criterion both of property and respectability. It is said, indeed, that we have pitched this qualification too low—but are we not now debating on the principle of the bill? And is not the committee the place for discussing whether that principle should be carried into effect by a qualification of £10, or a higher? I have no objection, however, to consider this mere matter of detail here; and if I can satisfy the noble earl, that all over England, except in London and a few other great towns, £10 is not too low, I may expect his vote after all. Now, in small towns—I speak in the hearing of noble lords who are well acquainted with the inhabitants of them—persons living in £10 houses are in easy circumstances. This is undeniably the general case. In fact, the adoption of that sum was not a matter of choice. We had originally preferred £20, but, when we came to inquire, it appeared that very large places had a most inconsiderable number of such houses. One town, for instance, with 17,000 or 18,000 inhabitants, had not twenty who rented houses rated at £20 a-year. Were we to destroy one set of close boroughs, the Old Sarums and Gattons, which had at least possession to plead for their title, in order to create another new set of boroughs just as close, though better peopled? In the large town I have alluded to, there were not three hundred persons rated at £10. Occupiers of such houses, in some country towns, fill the station of inferior shopkeepers—in some, of the better kind of tradesmen—here they are foremen of workshops—there, artisans earning good wages—sometimes, but seldom, labourers in full work: generally speaking, they are a class above want, having comfortable houses over their heads, and families and homes to which they are attached. An opinion has been broached, that the qualification might be varied in different places, raised in the larger towns, and lowered in the smaller. To this I myself, at one time, leant very strongly; I deemed it a great improvement of the measure. If I have since yielded to the objections which were urged, and the authorities brought to bear against me, this I can very confidently affirm, that if any one shall propound it in the committee, he will find in me, I will not say a supporter, but certainly an ample security, that the doctrine, which I deem important, shall undergo a full and candid and scrutinizing discussion. I speak for myself only

—I will not even for myself say, that were the committee so to modify the bill, I would accept it thus changed. Candour prevents me from holding out any such prospect; but I do not feel called upon to give any decisive opinion now upon this branch of the details, not deeply affecting the principle; only, I repeat emphatically, that I shall favour its abundant consideration in the proper place—the committee.

My lords, I have admitted that there is some truth in the assertion of population being made the criterion of title in towns to send representatives, though it has no application to the present controversy. Some criterion we were forced to take; for nobody holds that each place should choose members severally. A line must be drawn somewhere, and how could we find a better guide than the population? That is the general test of wealth, extent, importance; and therefore substantially, though not in name, it is really the test of property. Thus, after all, by taking population as the criterion of what towns shall send members, we get at property by almost the only possible road, and property becomes substantially the basis of the title to send representatives; as it confessedly is, in name as well as in substance, the only title to concur in the election of them. The whole foundation of the measure, therefore, and on which all its parts rest, is property alone, and not at all population.

But then, says the noble earl, the population of a town containing 4000 souls, may, for any provision to the contrary in the bill, be all paupers! Good God! Did ever man tax his ingenuity so hard to find an absurdly extreme case? What! a town of 4000 paupers! 4000 inhabitants, and all quartered on the rates! Then who is to pay the rates? But if extreme cases are to be put on the one side, why may not I put one on the other? What say you to close boroughs coming, by barter or sale, into the hands of Jew jobbers, gambling loan-contractors, and scheming attorneys, for the materials of extreme cases? What security do these afford against the machinations of aliens—ay, and of alien enemies? What against a nabob of Arcot's parliamentary and financial speculations? What against that truly British potentate naming eighteen or twenty of his tools members of the British House of Commons? But is this an extreme case, one that stands on the outermost verge of possibility, and beyond all reach of probable calculation? Why, it once happened; the Nabob Wallajah Cawn Bahauder had actually his eighteen or twenty members bought with a price, and sent to look after his pecuniary interests, as honest and independent members of Parliament. Talk now of the principle of property—the natural influence of great families—the sacred rights of the aristocracy—the endearing ties of neighbourhood—the paramount claims of the landed interest! Talk of British duties to discharge—British trusts to hold—British rights to exercise! Behold the sovereign of the Carnatic, who regards nor land, nor rank, nor connection, nor open country, nor populous city; but his eye fastens on the time-honoured relics of departed greatness and extinct population—the walls of Sarum and Gattop; he arms his right hand with their venerable parchments, and, pointing with his

left to a heap of star pagodas too massive to be carried along, lays siege to the citadel of the constitution, the Commons House of Parliament, and its gates fly open to receive his well disciplined band. Am I right in the assertion, that a foreign prince obtaining votes in Parliament, under the present system, is no extreme case? Am I wrong in treating with scorn the noble earl's violent supposition of a town with 4000 souls, and all receiving parish relief?

But who are they that object to the bill its disregard of property? Is a care for property that which peculiarly distinguishes the system *they* uphold? Surely the conduct of those who contend that property alone ought to be considered in fixing the rights of election, and yet will not give up one freeman of a corporation to be disfranchised, presents to our view a miracle of inconsistency. The right of voting, in freemen, is wholly unconnected with any property of any kind whatever; the being freemen, is no test of being worth one shilling. Freemen may be, and very often are, common day-labourers, spending every week their whole weekly gains—menial servants, having the right by birth—men living in alms-houses—parish paupers. All who have been at contested elections for corporate towns know that the question constantly raised is upon the right to vote of freemen receiving parish relief. The voters in boroughs, under the present system, are such freemen, non-resident as well as resident (a great abuse, because the source of a most grievous expense to candidates), inhabitants paying scot and lot, which is only an imperfect form of the qualification intended by the bill to be made universal, under wholesome restrictions—and burgage tenants. I have disposed of the two first classes; there remains the last. Burgages, then, are said to be property, and, no doubt, they resemble it a good deal more than the rights of freemen do. In one sense, property they certainly are. But whose? The lord's who happens to have them on his estate. Are they the property of the voter, who, to qualify him for the purposes of election, receives his title by a mock conveyance at two o'clock in the afternoon, that he may vote at three for the nominee of the real owner, and at four returns it to the solicitor of that owner, to be ready for the like use at the next election? This is your present right of voting by burgage, and this you call a qualification by virtue of property. It is a gross abuse of terms. But it is worse; it is a gross abuse of the constitution—a scandal and an outrage no longer to be endured. That a peer, or a speculating attorney, or a jobbing Jew, or a gambler from the Stock Exchange, by vesting in his own person the old walls of Sarum, a few pigsties at Blethingly, or a summer-house at Gatton, and making fictitious and collusive and momentary transfers of them to an agent or two, for the purpose of enabling them to vote as if they had the property, of which they all the while know they have not the very shadow, is in itself a monstrous abuse, in the form of a gross and barefaced cheat; and becomes the most disgusting hypocrisy, when it is seriously treated as a franchise by virtue of property. I will tell those peers, attorneys, jobbers, loan-contractors, and the nabob's agents, if such there still be among us,

that the time is come when these things can no longer be borne—and an end *must* at length be put to the abuse which suffers the most precious rights of government to be made the subject of common barter—the high office of making laws to be conveyed by traffic, pass by assignment under a commission of bankrupt, or the powers of an insolvent act, or be made over for a gaming debt. If any one can be found to say that the abuses which enable a man to put his livery servants in the House of Commons as lawgivers, are essential parts of the British constitution, he must have read its history with better eyes than mine; and if such person be right, I certainly am wrong—but if I am, then also are all those other persons far more in the wrong, who have so lavishly, in all times and countries, sung the praises of the constitution. I well remember, when I argued at that bar the great case of my noble friend claiming a barony by tenure*—it was again and again pressed upon me by the noble and learned earl,† as a consequence of the argument absurd enough to refute it entirely, that a seat in this House might become vested, as he said, in a tailor, as the assignee of an insolvent's estate and effects. I could only meet this by humbly suggesting, that the anomaly, the grossness of which I was forced to admit, already existed in every day's practice; and I reminded your lordships of the manner in which seats in the other House of the legislature are bought and sold. A tailor may by purchase, or by assignment under a bankruptcy, obtain the right of sending members to Parliament, and he may nominate himself—and the case has actually happened. A waiter at a gambling house did sit for years in that House, holding his borough property, for aught I can tell, in security of a gambling debt. By means of that property, and right of voting, he advanced himself to the honours of the baronetcy. Fine writing has been defined to be right words in right places; so may fine acting be said to consist of right votes in right places, that is, on pinching questions; and in the discharge of my professional duty on the occasion of which I am speaking, I humbly ventured to approach a more awful subject, and to suggest the possibility of the worthy baronet rising still higher in the state; and, by persisting in his course of fine acting and judicious voting, obtaining, at length, a seat among your lordships—which he would then have owed to a gambling debt. Certain it is, that the honours of the peerage have been bestowed before now upon right voters in right places. While I am on this subject, I cannot but advert to the remarks of my noble and learned friend‡ who was elevated from the bench to this House, and who greatly censured the ministers for creating some peers who happened to agree with them in politics. The coronation was, as all men know, forced upon us; nothing could be more against our will; but the opposition absolutely insisted on having one, to show their loyalty; a creation of peers was the necessary consequence, and the self same number were made as at the last coronation, ten years ago. But we did not make our adversaries peers—we did not bring in a

* Lord Segrave.

† Earl of Eldon.

‡ Lord Wynford.

dozen men to oppose us—that is my noble friend's complaint; and we did not choose our peers for such merits as alone, according to his view, have always caused men to be ennobled. Merit, no doubt, has opened to many the doors of this House. To have bled for their country—to have administered the highest offices of the state—to have dispensed justice on the bench—to have improved mankind by arts invented, or enlightened them by science extended—to have adorned the world by letters, or won the more imperishable renown of virtue—these, no doubt, are the highest and the purest claims to public honours; and from some of these sources are derived the titles of some among us—to others, the purest of all, none can trace their nobility—and upon not any of them can one single peer in a score rest the foundation of his seat in this place. Service without a scar in the political campaign—constant presence in the field of battle at St. Stephen's chapel—absence from all other fights, from “Blenheim down to Waterloo”—but above all, steady discipline—right votes in right places—these are the precious, but happily, not rare qualities, which have generally raised men to the peerage. For these qualities the gratitude of Mr. Pitt showered down his baronies by the score, and I do not suppose he ever once so much as dreamt of ennobling a man who had ever been known to give one vote against him.

My lords, I have been speaking of the manner in which owners of boroughs traffic, and exercise the right of sending members to Parliament. I have dwelt on no extreme cases; I have adverted to what passes every day before my eyes. See now the fruits of the system, also by every day's experience. The Crown is stript of its just weight in the government of the country, by the masters of rotten boroughs;—they may combine; they do combine, and their union enables them to dictate their own terms. The people are stript of their most precious rights by the masters of rotten boroughs—for they have usurped the elective franchise, and thus gained an influence in Parliament which enables them to prevent its restoration. The best interests of the country are sacrificed by the masters of rotten boroughs—for their nomination must vote according to the interest not of the nation at large, whom they affect to represent, but of a few individuals, whom alone they represent in reality. But so perverted have men's minds become, by the gross abuse to which they have been long habituated, that the grand topic of the noble earl,* and other debaters—the master-key which instantly unlocked all the sluices of indignation in this quarter of the House against the measure—which never failed, how often soever used, to let loose the wildest cheers, has been—that our reform will open the right of voting to vast numbers, and interfere with the monopoly of the few; while we invade, as it is pleasantly called, the property of the peers and other borough-holders. Why, say they, it absolutely amounts to representation! And wherefore should it not, I say? and what else ought it to be? Are we not upon the question of representation and none other? Are we not dealing with the sub-

* Lord Harrowby.

ject of a representative body for the people? The question is, how we may best make the people's House of Parliament represent the people: and, in answer to the plan proposed, we hear nothing but the exclamations—"Why, this scheme of yours is a rank representation! It is downright election! It is nothing more nor less than giving the people a voice in the choice of their own representatives! It is absolutely that most strange—unheard of—unimagined—and most abominable—intolerable—incredibly inconsistent and utterly pernicious novelty, that the members chosen should have electors, and that the constituents should have something to do with returning the members!"

But we are asked, at what time of our history any such system as we propose to establish was ever known in England, and this appeal, always confidently made, was never more pointedly addressed than by my noble and learned friend* to me. Now, I need not remind your lordships, that the present distribution of the right to send members, is anything rather than very ancient; still less has it been unchanged. Henry VIII. created twenty boroughs—Edward VI. made twelve—good Queen Elizabeth created one hundred and twenty, revived forty-eight; and in all there were created and revived two hundred down to the Restoration. I need only read the words of Mr. Prynne upon the remote antiquity of our borough system. He enumerates sixty-four boroughs—fourteen in Cornwall alone—as all new; and, he adds, "for the most part, the Universities excepted, very mean, poor, inconsiderable boroughs, set up by the late returns, practices of sheriffs, or ambitious gentlemen desiring to serve them, court-ing, bribing, feasting them for their voices, not by prescription or charter (some few excepted), since the reign of Edward IV., before whose reign they never elected or returned members to any English Parliament, as now they do."

Such then is the old and venerable distribution of representation time out of mind, had and enjoyed in Cornwall and in England at large. Falmouth and Bossiney, Lostwithiel and Grampound, may, it seems, be enfranchised, and welcome, by the mere power of the Crown. But let it be proposed to give Birmingham and Manchester, Leeds and Sheffield, members by an act of the legislature, and the air resounds with cries of revolution!

But I am challenged to prove that the present system, as regards the elective franchise, is not the ancient Parliamentary constitution of the country—upon pain, says my noble and learned friend, of judgment going against me if I remain silent. My lords, I will not keep silence, neither will I answer in my own person, but I will refer you to a higher authority, the highest known in the law, and in its best days, when the greatest lawyers were the greatest patriots. Here is the memorable report of the committee of the Commons, in 1623-4, of which committee Mr. Sergeant Glanville was the chairman, of which report he was the author. Among its members were the most celebrated names in the law—Coke, and Selden, and Finch, and Noy,

* Lord Wynford.

afterwards Attorney-General, and of known monarchical principles. The first resolution is this:—

“ There being no certain custom, nor prescription, who should be electors, and who not, we must have recourse to common right, which, to this purpose, was held to be, that more than the freeholders only ought to have voices in the election; namely, all men inhabitants, householders, residents within the borough.”

What then becomes of the doctrine that our bill is a mere innovation—that by the old law of England, inhabitants householders had no right to vote—that owners of burgage tenements, and freemen of corporations, have in all times exclusively had the franchise? Burgage tenants, it is true, of old had the right, but in the way I have already described—not as now, the nominal and fictitious holders for an hour merely for election purposes, but the owners of each—the real and actual proprietors of the tenement. Freemen never had it at all, till they usurped upon the inhabitants and thrust them out. But every householder voted in the towns without regard to value, as before the 8th of Henry VI. every freeholder voted without regard to value in the counties—not merely £10 householders, as we propose to restrict the right, but the holder of a house worth a shilling, as much as he whose house was worth a thousand pounds. But I have been appealed to; and I will take upon me to affirm, that if the Crown were to issue a writ to the sheriff, commanding him to send his precept to Birmingham or Manchester, requiring those towns to send burgesses to Parliament, the votes of *all* inhabitant householders must needs be taken, according to the exigency of the writ and precept, the right of voting at common law, and independent of any usurpation upon it, belonging to every resident householder. Are, then, the King’s ministers innovators—revolutionists—wild projectors—idle dreamers of dreams and seigners of fancies, when they restore the ancient common law right, but not in its ancient common law extent, for they limit, fix, and contract it? They add a qualification of £10 to restrain it, as our forefathers, in the fifteenth century, restrained the county franchise by the freehold qualification.

But then we hear much against the qualification adopted—that is, the particular sum fixed upon—and the noble earl* thinks it will only give us a set of constituents busied in gaining their daily bread, and having no time to study, and instruct themselves on state affairs. My noble friend too,† who lives near Birmingham, and may therefore be supposed to know his own neighbours better than we can, sneers at the statesmen of Birmingham and at the philosophers of Manchester. He will live—I tell him he will live to learn a lesson of practical wisdom from the statesmen of Birmingham, and a lesson of forbearance from the philosophers of Manchester. My noble friend was ill-advised, when he thought of displaying his talent for sarcasm upon 120,000 people in the one place, and 180,000 in the other. He did little, by such exhibitions, towards gaining a stock of credit for the order he

* Lord Harrowby.

† Lord Dudley.

belongs to—little towards conciliating for the aristocracy which he adorns, by pointing his little epigrams against such mighty masses of the people. Instead of meeting their exemplary moderation, their respectful demeanour, their affectionate attachment, their humble confidence, evinced in every one of the petitions, wherewithal they have in myriads approached the House, with a return of kindness—of courtesy—even of common civility;—he has thought it becoming and discreet to draw himself up in the pride of hexameter and pentameter verse,—skill in classic authors,—the knack of turning fine sentences,—and to look down with derision upon the knowledge of his unrepresented fellow-countrymen in the weightier matters of practical legislation. For myself, I too know where they are defective; I have no desire ever to hear them read a Latin line, or hit off in the mother tongue any epigram, whether in prose or in numerous verse. In these qualities they and I freely yield the palm to others. I, as their representative, yield it.—I once stood as such elsewhere, because they had none of their own; and though a noble earl* thinks they suffer nothing by the want, I can tell him they did severely suffer in the greatest mercantile question of the day, the Orders in Council, when they were fain to have a professional advocate for their representative, and were only thus allowed to make known their complaints to Parliament. Again representing them here, for them I bow to my noble friend's immeasurable superiority in all things, classical or critical. In book lore—in purity of diction—in correct prosody—even in elegance of personal demeanour, I and they, in his presence, hide, as well we may, our diminished heads. But to say that I will take my noble friend's judgment on any grave practical subject,—on anything touching the great interests of our commercial country,—or any of those manly questions which engage the statesman, the philosopher in practice;—to say that I could ever dream of putting the noble earl's opinions, ay, or his knowledge, in any comparison with the bold, rational, judicious, reflecting, natural, and because natural, the trustworthy opinions of those honest men, who always give their strong natural sense fair play, having no affectations to warp their judgment—to dream of any such comparison as this, would be, on my part, a flattery far too gross for any courtesy—or a blindness which no habits of friendship could excuse!

When I hear so much said of the manufacturers and artisans being an inferior race in the political world, I, who well know the reverse to be the fact, had rather not reason with their contemners, nor give my own partial testimony in their favour; but I will read a letter which I happen to have received within the three last days, and since the Derby meeting. "Some very good speeches were delivered," says the writer, "and you will perhaps be surprised when I tell you that much the best was delivered by a common mechanic. He exposed, with great force of reasoning, the benefits which the lower classes would derive from the Reform Bill, and the interest they had in being

* Lord Harrowby.

well governed. Not a single observation escaped him, during a long speech, in the slightest degree disrespectful to the House of Lords, and he showed as much good taste and good feeling as he could have done had he been a member of St. Stephen's. He is of course a man of talent; but there are many others also to be found, not far behind him. The feeling in general is, that their capacity to judge of political measures is only despised by those who do not know them." These men were far from imputing to any of your lordships, at that time, a contempt for their capacities. They had not heard the speech of the noble earl, and they did not suspect any man in this House of an inclination to despise them. They did, however, ascribe some such contemptuous feelings—*horresco referens*—to a far more amiable portion of the aristocracy. "They think," pursues the writer, "they are only treated with contempt by a few women (I suppress the epithets employed), who, because they set the tone of fashion in London, think they can do so here too."

The noble earl behind* addressed one observation to your lordships, which I must in fairness confess I do not think is so easily answered as those I have been dealing with. To the crown, he says, belongs the undoubted right, by the constitution, of appointing its ministers and the other public servants; and it ought to have a free choice, among the whole community, of the men fittest to perform the varied offices of the executive government. But, he adds, it may so happen, that the choice having fallen on the most worthy, his constituents, when he vacates his seat, may not re-elect him, or he may not be in Parliament at the time of his promotion; in either case he is excluded till a general election; and even at a general election, a discharge of unpopular, but necessary duties, may exclude him from a seat through an unjust and passing, and, possibly, a local disfavour with the electors. I have frankly acknowledged that I feel the difficulty of meeting this inconvenience with an apt and safe remedy, without a great innovation upon the elective principle. In the committee, others may be able to discover some safe means of supplying the defect. The matter deserves fuller consideration, and I shall be most ready to receive any suggestion upon it. But one thing I have no difficulty in stating, even should the evil be found remedyless, and that I have only the choice between taking the reform with this inconvenience, or perpetuating that most corrupt portion of our system, condemned from the time of Swift down to this day, and which even the most moderate and bit-by-bit reformers have now abandoned to its fate—my mind is made up, and I cheerfully prefer the reform.

The noble earl† has told my noble friend at the head of the government,‡ that he might have occupied a most enviable position, had he only abstained from meddling with Parliamentary Reform. He might have secured the support, and met the wishes, of all parties. "He stood," says the noble earl, "between the living and the dead."§ All

* Lord Harrowby.

† Lord Harrowby.

‡ Lord Grey.

§ This is a misapplication, apparently, of the noble allusion of one of our greatest

the benefit of this influence, and this following, it seems, my noble friend has forfeited by the measure of reform. My lords, I implicitly believe the noble lord's assertion, as far as regards himself. I know him to be sincere in these expressions, not only because he tells me so, which is enough, but because facts are within my knowledge, thoroughly confirming the statement. His support, and that of one or two respectable persons around him, we should certainly have had. Believe me, my lords, we fully appreciated the value of the sacrifice we made; it was not without a bitter pang that we made up our minds to forego this advantage. But I cannot so far flatter those noble persons, as to say that their support would have made the government sufficiently strong in the last Parliament. Honest, and useful, and creditable as it would have been, it never could have enabled us to go on for a night without the support of the people. I do not mean the populace—the mob: I never have bowed to them, though I never have testified any unbecoming contempt of them. Where is the man who has yielded less to their demands than he who now addresses you? Have I not opposed their wishes again and again? Have I not disengaged myself from them on their most favourite subject, and pronounced a demonstration, as I deemed it, of the absurdity and delusion of the ballot? Even in the most troublous times of party, who has gone less out of his course to pay them court, or less submitted his judgment to theirs? But if there is the mob, there is the people also. I speak now of the middle classes—of those hundreds of thousands of respectable persons—the most numerous, and by far the most wealthy order in the community; for if all your lordship's castles, manors, rights of warren and rights of chase, with all your broad acres, were brought to the hammer, and sold at fifty years' purchase, the price would fly up and kick the beam when counterpoised by the vast and solid riches of those middle classes, who are also the genuine depositaries of sober, rational, intelligent, and honest English feeling. Unable though they be to round a period, or point an epigram, they are solid, right-judging men, and above all, not given to change. If they have a fault, it is that error on the right side, a suspicion of state quacks—a dogged love of existing institutions—a perfect contempt of all political nostrums. They will neither be led astray by false reasoning, nor deluded by impudent flattery: but so neither will they be scared by classical quotations, or browbeaten by fine sentences; and as for an epigram, they care as little for it as they do for a cannon-ball. Grave—intelligent—rational—fond of thinking for themselves—they consider a subject long before they make up their minds on it; and the opinions they are thus slow to form they are not swift to abandon. It is an egregious folly to fancy that the popular clamour for reform, or whatever name you please to give it, could have been silenced by a mere change of ministers. The body of the people, such as I have distinguished and described them,

orators (Mr. Wilberforce), who said of Mr. Pitt and Revolution—“*He stood between the living and the dead, and the plague was stayed.*”

had weighed the matter well, and they looked to the government and to the Parliament for an effectual reform. Doubtless they are not the only classes who so felt; at their backs were the humbler and numerous orders of the state; and may God of his infinite mercy avert any occasion for rousing the might which in peaceful times slumbers in their arms! To the people, then, it was necessary, and it was most fit, that the government should look steadily for support; not to save this or that administration; but because, in my conscience, I do believe that no man out of the precincts of Bethlem Hospital—nay, no thinking man, not certainly the noble duke, a most sagacious and reflecting man—can, in these times, dream of carrying on any government in despite of those middle orders of the state. Their support must be sought, if the government would endure—the support of the people, as distinguished from the populace, but connected with that populace, who look up to them as their kind and natural protectors. The middle class, indeed, forms the link which connects the upper and the lower orders, and binds even your lordships with the populace, whom some of you are wont to despise. This necessary support of the country it was our duty to seek (and I trust we have not sought it in vain), by salutary reforms, not merely in the representation, but in all the branches of our financial, our commercial, and our legal polity. But when the noble earl talks of the government being able to sustain itself by the support of himself and his friends, does he recollect the strong excitement which prevailed last winter? Could we have steered the vessel of the state safely through that excitement, either within doors or without, backed by no other support? I believe he was then on the Bay of Naples, and he possibly thought all England was slumbering like that peaceful lake—when its state was more like the slumbers of the mountain upon its margin. Stand between the living and the dead, indeed! Possibly we might; for we found our supporters among the latter class, and our bitter assailants among the former. True it is, the noble earl would have given us his honest support; *his* acts would have tallied with his professions. But can this be said of others? Did they, who used nearly the same language, and avowed the same feelings, give anything to the government, but the most factious opposition? Has the noble earl never heard of their conduct upon the Timber duties, when, to thwart the administration, they actually voted against measures devised by themselves—ay, and threw them out by their division? Exceptions there were, no doubt, and never to be mentioned without honour to their names, some of the most noble that this House, or indeed any country of Europe can boast.* They would not, for spiteful purposes, suffer themselves to be dragged through the mire of such vile proceedings, and conscientiously refused to join in defeating the measures themselves had planned. These were solitary exceptions; the rest, little scrupulous, gave up all to wreak their vengeance on the men who had committed the grave offence, by politicians not to be forgiven, of succeeding them in their offices. I do not then think that in making our election to prefer the

* Mr. T. P. Courtenay.

favours of the country to those of the noble earl, we acted unwisely, independent of all considerations of duty and of consistency; and I fear I can claim for our conduct no praise of disinterestedness.

My lords, I have followed the noble earl as closely as I could through his arguments, and I will not answer those who supported him with equal minuteness, because, in answering him, I have really answered all the arguments against the bill. One noble lord* seems to think he has destroyed it, when he pronounces, again and again, that the members chosen under it will be delegates. What if they were delegates? What should a representative be but the delegate of his constituents? But a man may be the delegate of a single person, as well as of a city or a town; he may be just as much a delegate when he has one constituent as when he has 5000—with this material difference, that under a single constituent, who can turn him off in a moment, he is sure to follow the orders he receives implicitly, and that the service he performs will be for the benefit of one man, and not of many. The giving a name to the thing, and crying out Delegate! Delegate! proves nothing, for it only raises the question, who should be the delegator of this public trust—the people or the borough-holders? Another noble lord,† professing to wish well to the great unrepresented towns, complained of the bill on their behalf, because, he said, the first thing it does is to close up the access which they at present possess to Parliament, by the purchase of seats for mercantile men, who may represent the different trading interests in general. Did ever mortal man contrive a subtlety so absurd, so nonsensical, as this? What! Is it better for Birmingham to subscribe, and raise £5000, for a seat at Old Sarum, than to have the right of openly and honestly choosing its own representative, and sending him direct to Parliament? Such horror have some men of the straight, open, highway of the constitution, that they would, rather than travel upon it, sneak into their seats by the dirty, winding, by-ways of rotten boroughs.

But the noble earl behind‡ professed much kindness for the great towns—he had no objection to give Birmingham, Manchester, and Sheffield representatives as vacancies might occur, by the occasional disfranchisement of boroughs for crimes. Was there ever anything so fantastical as this plan of reform? In the first place, these great towns either ought to have members, or they ought not. If they ought, why hang up the possession of their just rights upon the event of some other place committing an offence? Am I not to have my right till another does a wrong? Suppose a man wrongfully keeps possession of my close; I apply to him, and say, “Mr. Johnson, give me up my property, and save me and yourself an action of ejectment.” Should not I have some cause to be surprised, if he answered, “Oh no, I can’t let you have it till Mr. Thomson embezzles £10,000, and then I may get a share of it, and that will enable me to buy more land, and then I’ll give you up your field.”—“But I

* Lord Falmouth. † Lord Caernarvon. ‡ Lord Harrowby.

want the field, and have a right to get it; not because Thomson has committed a crime, but because it is my field, and not yours,—and I should be as great a fool as you are a knave, were I to wait till Thomson became as bad as yourself.” I am really ashamed to detain your lordships with exposing such wretched trifling.

A speech, my lords, was delivered by my noble friend under the opposite gallery,* which has disposed of much that remains of my task. I had purposed to show the mighty change which has been wrought in later times upon the opinions, the habits, and the intelligence of the people, by the universal diffusion of knowledge. But this has been done by my noble friend with an accuracy of statement, and a power of language, which I should in vain attempt to follow; and there glowed through his admirable oration, a natural warmth of feeling to which every heart instinctively responded. I have, however, lived to hear that great speech talked of in the language of contempt. A noble lord,† in the fulness of his ignorance of its vast subject, in the maturity of his incapacity to comprehend its merits, described it as an amusing—a droll speech; and in this profound criticism a noble ear‡ seemed to concur, whom I should have thought capable of making a more correct appreciation. Comparisons are proverbially invidious; yet I cannot help contrasting that speech with another which I heard not very long ago, and of which my noble friend§ knows something; one not certainly much resembling the luminous speech in question, but a kind of chaos of dark, disjointed figures, in which soft professions of regard for friends fought with hard censures on their conduct, frigid conceptions with fiery execution, and the lightness of the materials with the heaviness of the workmanship—

“*Frigida pugnabant calidis, humentia siccis,
Mollia cum duris, sine pondere habentia pondus.*”

A droll and amusing speech, indeed! It was worthy of the same speaker, of whom both Mr. Windham and Mr. Canning upon one occasion said, that he had made the finest they ever heard. It was a lesson deeply impregnated with the best wisdom of the nineteenth century, but full also of the profoundest maxims of the seventeenth. There was not a word of that speech—not one proposition in its luminous context—one sentence of solemn admonition or of touching regret—fell from my noble friend||—not a severe reproof of the selfishness—nor an indignant exclamation upon the folly of setting yourselves against the necessary course of events, and refusing the rights of civilization to those whom you have suffered to become civilized—not a sentiment, not a topic, which the immortal eloquence and imperishable wisdom of Lord Bacon did not justify, sanction, and prefix.

They who are constantly taunting us with subverting the system of the representation, and substituting a Parliamentary constitution unknown in earlier times, must be told that we are making no

* Lord Radnor.

§ Earl Caernarvon.

† Lord Falmouth.

|| Lord Radnor.

‡ Earl Caernarvon.

change—that we are not pulling down, but building up—or, at the utmost, adapting the representation to the altered state of the community. The system which was hardly fitted for the fourteenth century, cannot surely be adapted to the nineteenth. The innovations of time, of which our detractors take no account, are reckoned upon by all sound statesmen; and in referring to them, my noble friend* has only followed in the footsteps of the most illustrious of philosophers. “Stick to your ancient Parliamentary system,” it is said; “make no alteration; keep it exactly such as it was in the time of Harry the Third when the two Houses first sat in separate chambers, and such as it has to this day continued!” This is the ignorant cry; this the very shibboleth of the party. But I have joined an issue with our antagonists upon the fact; and I have given the evidence of Selden, of Glanville, of Coke, of Noy, and of Prynne, proving to demonstration that the original right of voting has been subjected to great and hurtful changes—that the exclusive franchise of freemen is an usurpation upon householders—and that our measure is a restoration of the rights thus usurped upon. I have shown that the ministers are only occupied in the duty of repairing what is decayed, not in the work of destruction, or of violent change. Your lordships were recently assembled at the great solemnity of the coronation. Do you call to mind the language of the primate, and in which the monarch swore, when the sword of kingly estate was delivered into his hands? “Restore the things that are gone into decay; maintain that which is restored; purify and reform what is amiss; confirm that which is in good order!” His sacred Majesty well remembers his solemn vow, to restore the constitution, and to reform the abuses time has introduced; and I, too, feel the duty imposed on me, of keeping fresh in the recollection of the prince, whom it is my pride and my boast to serve, the parts of our system which fall within the scope of his vow. But if he has sworn to restore the decayed, so has he also sworn to maintain that which is restored, and to confirm that which wants no repairing; and what sacrifice soever may be required to maintain and confirm, that sacrifice I am ready to make, opposing myself, with my sovereign, to the surge that may dash over me, and saying to it, “Hitherto shalt thou come; here shall thy waves be staid.” For while that sovereign tells the enemies of all change, “I have sworn to restore!” so will he tell them who look for change only, “I have also sworn to maintain!”

“Stand by the whole of the old constitution!” is the cry of our enemies. I have disposed of the issue of fact, and shown that what we attack is anything but the old constitution. But suppose, for argument’s sake, the question had been decided against us—that Selden, Coke, Noy, Glanville, Prynne, were all wrong—that their doctrine and mine was a mere illusion, and rotten boroughs the ancient order of things—that it was a fundamental principle of the old constitution to have members without constituents, boroughs without members,

* Lord Radnor.

and a representative Parliament without electors. Suppose this to be the nature of the old, and much admired, and more bepraised, government of England. All this I will assume for the sake of the argument; and I solicit the attention of the noble lords who maintain that argument, while I show them its utter absurdity. Since the early times of which they speak, has there been no change in the very nature of a seat in Parliament? Is there no difference between our days and those when the electors eschewed the right of voting, and a seat in Parliament, as well as the elective franchise, was esteemed a burthen? Will the same principles apply to that age and to ours, when all the people of the three kingdoms are more eager for the power of voting than for any other earthly possession; and the chance of sitting in the House of Commons is become the object of all men's wishes? Even as late as the union of the Crowns, we have instances of informations filed in the courts of law to compel Parliament men to attend their duty, or punish them for the neglect—so ill was privilege then understood. But somewhat earlier, we find boroughs petitioning to be relieved from the expense of sending members, and members supported by their constituents as long as they continued their attendance. Is it not clear that the Parliamentary law applicable to that state of things cannot be applied to the present circumstances, without in some respects making a violent revolution? But so it is in the progress of all those changes which time is perpetually working in the condition of human affairs. They are really the authors of change, who resist the alterations which are required to adjust the system, and adapt it to new circumstances;—who forcibly arrest the progress of one portion amidst the general advancement. Take, as an illustration, the state of our jurisprudence. The old law ordained that a debtor's property should be taken in execution. But in early times there were no public funds, no paper securities, no accounts at bankers; land and goods formed the property of all; and those were allowed to be taken in satisfaction of debts. The law, therefore, which only said, let land and goods be taken, excluded the recourse against stock and credits, although it plainly meant that all the property should be liable, and would clearly have attached stock and credits, had they then been known. But when nine-tenths of the property of our richest men consist of stock and credits, to exempt these under pretence of standing by the old law, is manifestly altering the substance for the sake of adhering to the letter; and substituting for the old law, that all the debtor's property should be liable, a new and totally different law, that a small part only of his property should be liable. Yet in no part of our system has there been a greater change than in the estimated value attached to the franchise, and to a seat in Parliament, from the times when one class of the community anxiously shunned the cost of electing, and another as cautiously avoided being returned, to those when both classes are alike anxious to obtain these privileges. Then, can any reasonable man argue, that the same law should be applied to two states of things so diametrically opposite? Thus much I thought fit to say, in order to guard

your lordships against a favourite topic, one sedulously urged by the adversaries of reform, who lead men astray by constantly harping upon the string of change, innovation, and revolution.

But it is said, and this is a still more favourite argument, the system works well. How does it work well? Has it any pretensions to the character of working well? What say you to a town of five or six thousand inhabitants, not one of whom has any more to do with the choice of its representatives than any of your lordships sitting round that table—indeed, a great deal less—for I see my noble friend* is there? It works well, does it? How works well? It would work well for the noble duke, if he chose to carry his votes to market! Higher rank, indeed, he could not purchase than he has; but he has many connections, and he might gain a title for every one that bears his name. But he has always acted in a manner far more worthy of his own high character, and of the illustrious race of patriots from whom he descends, the founders of our liberties, and of the throne which our sovereign's exalted house fills; and his family have deemed that name a more precious inheritance than any title for which it could be exchanged. But let us see how the system works for the borough itself, and its thousands of honest, industrious inhabitants. My lords, I once had the fortune to represent it for a few weeks; at the time when I received the highest honour of my life, the pride and exultation of which can never be eradicated from my mind but by death, nor in the least degree allayed by any lapse of time—the most splendid distinction which any subjects can confer upon a fellow-citizen—to be freely elected for Yorkshire, upon public grounds, and being unconnected with the county. From having been at the borough the day of the election, I can give your lordships some idea how well the system works there. You may be returned for the place, but it is at your peril that you show yourself among the inhabitants. There is a sort of polling; that is, five or six of my noble friend's tenants ride over from another part of the country—receive their burgage qualifications—vote, as the enemies of the bill call it, “in right of property,” that is, of the duke's property—render up their title-deeds—dine, and return home before night. Being detained in court at York longer than I had expected on the day of this elective proceeding, I arrived too late for the chairing, and therefore did not assist at that awful solemnity. Seeing a gentleman with a black patch, somewhere about the size of a sergeant's coif, I expressed my regret at his apparent ailment; he said, “It is for a blow I had the honour to receive in representing you at the ceremony.” Certainly no constituent ever owed more to his representative than I to mine; but the blow was severe, and might well have proved fatal. I understand this is the common lot of the members, as my noble friend,† who once sat for the place, I believe, knows; though there is some variety, as he is aware, in the mode of proceeding, the convenient neighbourhood of a river with a rocky channel sometimes suggesting

* The Duke of Devonshire.

† Lord Tankerville.

operations of another kind. I am very far, of course, from approving such marks of public indignation; but I am equally far from wondering that it should seek a vent; for I confess, that if the thousands of persons whom the well working of the present system insults with the farce of the Knaresborough election (and whom the bill restores to their rights) were to bear so cruel a mockery with patience, I should deem them degraded indeed.

It works well, does it? For whom? For the constitution? No such thing. For borough proprietors it works well, who can sell seats, or traffic in influence, and pocket the gains. Upon the constitution it is the foulest stain, and eats into its very core.

It works well? For the people of England? For the people, of whom the many excluded electors are parcel, and for whom alone the few actual electors ought to exercise their franchise as a trust! No such thing. As long as a member of Parliament really represents any body of his countrymen, be they freeholders, or copyholders, or leaseholders—as long as he represents the householders in any considerable town—and is in either way deputed to watch over the interests of a portion of the community, and is always answerable to those who delegate him—so long has he a participation in the interests of the whole state, whereof his constituents form a portion; so long may he justly act as representing the whole community, having, with his particular electors, only a general coincidence of views upon national questions, and a rigorous coincidence where their special interests are concerned. But if he is delegated by a single man, and not by a county or a town, he does not represent the people of England; he is a jobber, sent to Parliament to do his own or his patron's work. But then we are told, and with singular exultation, how many great men have found their way into the House of Commons by this channel. My lords, are we, because the only road to a place is unclean, not to travel it? If I cannot get into Parliament, where I may render the state good service, by any other means, I will go that way, defiling myself as little as I can, either by the filth of the passage, or the indifferent company I may travel with. I won't bribe; I won't job, to get in; but if it be the only path open, I will use it for the public good. But those who indulge in this argument about great men securing seats, do not, I remark, take any account of the far greater numbers of very little men who thus find their way into Parliament, to do all manner of public mischief. A few are, no doubt, independent; but many are as docile, as disciplined in the evolutions of debate, as any troops the noble duke had at Waterloo. One borough proprietor is well remembered, who would display his forces, command them in person, carry them over from one flank to the other, or draw them off altogether, and send them to take the field against the larks at Dunstable, that he might testify his displeasure. When conflicting bodies are pretty nearly matched, the evolutions of such a corps decide the fate of the day. The noble duke* remembers how doubtful even the

* Wellington.

event of Waterloo might have been had Grouchy come up in time. Accordingly, the fortunate leader of that parliamentary force raised himself to an earldom and two lord lieutenancies, and obtained titles and blue ribands for others of his family, who now fill most respectable stations in this House.

The system, we are told, works well, because, notwithstanding the manner of its election, the House of Commons sometimes concurs immediately in opinion with the people; and, in the long run, is seldom found to counteract it. Yet sometimes, and on several of the most momentous questions, the run has, indeed, been a very long one. The slave trade continued to be the signal disgrace of the country, the unutterable opprobrium of the English name, for many years after it had been denounced in Parliament, and condemned by the people all in one voice. Think you this foul stain could have so long survived, in a reformed Parliament, the prodigious eloquence of my venerable friend, Mr. Wilberforce, and the unanimous reprobation of the country? The American war might have been commenced, and even for a year or two persevered in, for, though most unnatural, it was, at first, not unpopular. But could it have lasted beyond 1778, had the voice of the people been heard in their own House? The French war, which in those days I used to think a far more natural contest, having in my youth leant to the alarmist party, might possibly have continued some years. But if the representation of the country had been reformed, there can be no reason to doubt that the sound views of the noble earl,* and the immortal eloquence of my right honourable friend,† whose great spirit, now freed from the coil of this world, may be permitted to look down complacent upon the near accomplishment of his patriotic desires, would have been very differently listened to in a Parliament unbiassed by selfish interests; and of one thing I am as certain as that I stand here, that ruinous warfare never could have lasted a day beyond the arrival of Buonaparte's letter in 1800.

But still it is said public opinion finds its way more speedily into Parliament upon great and interesting emergencies. How does it so? By a mode contrary to the whole principles of representative government—by sudden, direct, and dangerous impulses. The fundamental principle of our constitution, the great political discovery of modern times—that, indeed, which enables a state to combine extent with liberty—the system of representation, consists altogether in the perfect delegation by the people, of their rights and the care of their interests, to those who are to deliberate and to act for them. It is not a delegation which shall make the representative a mere organ of the passing will, or momentary opinion, of his constituents. I am aware, my lords, that in pursuing this important topic, I may lay myself open to uncandid inference, touching the present state of the country; but I feel sure no such unfair advantage will be taken, for my whole argument upon the national enthusiasm for Reform rests upon the known

* Lord Grey.

† Mr. Fox.

fact, that it is the growth of half a century, and not of a few months; and, according to the soundest views of representative legislation, there ought to be a *general* coincidence between the conduct of the delegate and the sentiments of the electors. Now, when the public voice, for want of a regular and legitimate organ, makes itself, from time to time, heard within the walls of Parliament, it is by a direct interposition of the people, not in the way of a delegated trust, to make the laws—and every such occasion presents, in truth, an instance where the defects of our elective system introduce a recurrence to the old and barbarous schemes of government, known in the tribes and centuries of Rome, or the assemblies of Attica. It is a poor compensation for the faults of a system which suffers a cruel grievance to exist, or a ruinous war to last twenty or thirty years after the public opinion has condemned it, that some occasions arise when the excess of the abuse brings about a violent remedy, or some revolutionary shock, threatening the destruction of the whole.

But it works well! Then why does the table groan with the petitions against it, of all that people, for whose interests there is any use in it working at all? Why did the country, at the last election, without exception, wherever they had the franchise, return members commissioned to complain of it, and amend it? Why were its own produce, the men chosen under it, found voting against it by unexampled majorities? Of eighty-two English county members, seventy-six have pronounced sentence upon it, and they are joined by all the representatives of cities and of great towns.

It works well! Whence, then, the phenomenon of Political Unions, —of the people everywhere forming themselves into associations to put down a system which you say well serves their interests? Whence the congregating of 150,000 men in one place, the whole adult male population of two or three counties, to speak the language of discontent, and refuse the payment of taxes? I am one who never have either used the language of intimidation, or will ever suffer it to be used towards me; but I also am one who regard those indications with unspeakable anxiety. With all respect for those assemblages, and for the honesty of the opinions they entertain, I feel myself bound to declare, as an honest man, as a minister of the crown, as a magistrate, nay, as standing, by virtue of my office, at the head of the magistracy, that a resolution not to pay the King's taxes is unlawful. When I contemplate the fact, I am assured that not above a few thousands of those nearest the chairman could know for what it was they held up their hands. At the same time there is too much reason to think that the rest would have acted as they did, had they heard all that passed. My hope and trust is, that these men and their leaders will maturely reconsider the subject. There are no bounds to the application of such a power; the difficulty of counteracting it is extreme; and as it may be exerted on whatever question has the leading interest, and every question in succession is felt as of exclusive importance, the use of the power I am alluding to, really threatens to resolve all government, and even society itself, into its elements. I know the

risk I run of giving offence by what I am saying. To me, accused of worshipping the democracy, here is indeed a tempting occasion, if in that charge there were the shadow of truth. Before the great idol, the Juggernaut, with his 150,000 priests, I might prostrate myself advantageously. But I am bound to do my duty, and speak the truth; of such an assembly I cannot approve; even its numbers obstruct discussion, and tend to put the peace in danger,—coupled with such a combination against payment of taxes, it is illegal; it is intolerable under any form of government; and as a sincere well-wisher to the people themselves, and devoted to the cause which brought them together, I feel solicitous, on every account, to bring such proceedings to an end.

But, my lords, it is for us to ponder these things well; they are material facts in our present inquiry. Under a system of real representation, in a country where the people possessed the only safe and legitimate channel for making known their wishes and their complaints, a Parliament of their own choosing, such combinations would be useless. Indeed, they must always be mere *brutum fulmen*, unless where they are very general; and where they are general, they both indicate the universality of the grievance and the determination to have redress. Where no safety-valve is provided for popular discontent, to prevent an explosion that may shiver the machine in pieces—where the people—and by the people, I repeat, I mean the middle classes, the wealth and intelligence of the country, the glory of the British name—where this most important order of the community are without a regular and systematic communication with the legislature—where they are denied the constitution which is their birthright, and refused a voice in naming those who are to make the laws they must obey—impose the taxes they must pay,—and control, without appeal, their persons as well as properties—where they feel the load of such grievances, and feel too the power they possess, moral, intellectual, and, let me add, without the imputation of a threat, physical—then, and only then, are their combinations formidable; when they are armed by their wrongs, far more formidable than any physical force—then, and only then, they become invincible.

Do you ask what, in these circumstances, we ought to do? I answer, simply our duty. If there were no such combinations in existence—no symptom of popular excitement—if not a man had lifted up his voice against the existing system, we should be bound to seek and to seize any means of furthering the best interests of the people, with kindness, with consideration, with the firmness, certainly, but with the prudence also, of statesmen. How much more are we bound to conciliate a great nation, anxiously panting for their rights—to hear respectfully their prayers—to entertain the measure of their choice with an honest inclination to do it justice; and if, while we approve its principle, we yet dislike some of its details, and deem them susceptible of modification, surely we ought, at any rate, not to reject their prayers for it with insult. God forbid we should so treat the people's desire; but I do fear that a determination is taken not to entertain

it with calmness and impartiality. (Cries of *No! No!* from the opposition.) I am glad to have been in error; I am rejoiced to hear this disclaimer, for I infer from it that the people's prayers are to be granted. You will listen, I trust, to the advice of my noble and learned friend,* who, with his wonted sagacity, recommended you to do as you would be done by. This wise and Christian maxim will not, I do hope, be forgotten. Apply it, my lords, to the case before you. Suppose, for a moment, that your lordships, in your wisdom, should think it expedient to entertain some bill regulating matters in which this House alone has any concern, as the hereditary privileges of the peerage, or the right of voting by proxy, or matters relative to the election of peers representing the aristocracy of Ireland and Scotland, or providing against the recurrence of such an extraordinary and indeed unaccountable event as that which decided on the Huntingdon Peerage without a committee; suppose, after great exertions of those most interested, as the Scotch and Irish peers, or this House at large, your lordships had passed it through all its stages by immense majorities, by fifty or a hundred to one, as the Commons did the reform. (Cries of *No.*) I say an overwhelming majority of all who represented any body, all the members for counties and towns; but to avoid cavilling, suppose it passed by a large majority of those concerned, and sent down to the Commons, whom it only remotely affected. Well—it has reached that House; and suppose the members were to refuse giving your measure any examination at all in detail, and to reject it at once. What should you say? How should you feel, think you, when the Commons arrogantly turned round from your request, and said—“Let us fling out this silly bill without more ado;—true, it regulates matters belonging exclusively to the lords, and in which we cannot at all interfere without violating the law of the land; but still, out with it for an aristocratic, oligarchical, revolutionary bill, a bill to be abominated by all who have a spark of the true democratic spirit in their composition.” What should you think if the measure were on such grounds got rid of, without the usual courtesy of a pretended postponement, by a vote that this lord's bill be rejected? And should you feel much soothed by hearing that some opposition Chesterfield had taken alarm at the want of politeness among his brethren, and at two o'clock in the morning altered the words, retaining their offensive sense—I ask, would such proceedings in the Commons be deemed by your lordships a fair, just, candid opposition to a measure affecting your own seats and dignities only? Would you tolerate their saying, “We don't mind the provisions of this lord's bill; we don't stop to discuss them; we won't parley with such a thing; we plainly see it hurts our interest, and checks our own patronage; for it is an aristocratic bill, and an oligarchical bill, and withal a revolutionary bill?” Such treatment would, I doubt not, ruffle the placid tempers of your lordships; you would say somewhat of your order, its rights, and its privileges, and buckle on the armour of a well-founded and natural

* Lord Plunkett.

indignation. But your wonder would doubtless increase, if you learnt that your bill had been thus contemptuously rejected in its first stage by a House in which only two members could be found who disapproved of its fundamental principles. Yes, all avow themselves friendly to the principle; it is a matter of much complaint, if you charge one with not being a reformer; but they cannot join in a vote which only asserts that principle, and recognises the expediency of some reform. Yes, the Commons all allow your peerage law to be an abomination; your privileges a nuisance: all cry out for some change as necessary, as imperative; but they, nevertheless, will not even listen to the proposition for effecting a change, which you, the most interested party, have devised and sent down to them. Where, I demand, is the difference between this uncourteous and absurd treatment of your supposed bill by the Commons, and that which you talk of giving to theirs? You approve of the principle of the measure sent up by the other House, for the sole purpose of amending its own constitution; but you won't sanction that principle by your vote, nor afford its friends an opportunity of shaping its features, so as if possible to meet your wishes. Is this fair? Is it candid? Is it consistent? Is it wise? Is it, I ask you, is it at this time very prudent? Did the Commons act so by you in Sir Robert Walpole's time, when the bill for restraining the creation of peers went down from hence to that House? No such thing; though it afterwards turned out that there was a majority of 112 against it, they did not even divide upon the second reading. Will you not extend an equal courtesy to the bill of the Commons and of the people?

I am asked what great practical benefits are to be expected from this measure? And is it no benefit to have the government strike its roots into the hearts of the people? Is it no benefit to have a calm and deliberative, but a real organ of the public opinion, by which its course may be known, and its influence exerted upon state affairs regularly and temperately, instead of acting convulsively, and as it were by starts and shocks? I will only appeal to one advantage, which is as certain to result from this salutary improvement of our system, as it is certain that I am addressing your lordships. A noble earl* inveighed strongly against the licentiousness of the press; complained of its insolence; and asserted that there was no tyranny more intolerable than that which its conductors now exercised. It is most true, that the press has great influence, but equally true, that it derives this influence from expressing, more or less correctly, the opinion of the country. Let it run counter to the prevailing course, and its power is at an end. But I will also admit that, going in the same general direction with public opinion, the press is oftentimes armed with too much power in particular instances; and such power is always liable to be abused. But I will tell the noble earl upon what foundation this overgrown power is built. The press is now the only organ of public opinion. This title it assumes; but it is not by usurpation: it

* Lord Winchilsea.

is rendered legitimate by the defects of your Parliamentary constitution; it is erected upon the ruins of real representation. The periodical press is the rival of the House of Commons; and it is, and it will be, the successful rival, as long as that House does not represent the people—but not one day longer. If ever I felt confident in any prediction, it is in this, that the restoration of Parliament to its legitimate office of representing truly the public opinion will overthrow the tyranny of which noble lords are so ready to complain, who, by keeping out the lawful sovereign, in truth support the usurper. It is you who have placed this unlawful authority on a rock: pass the bill, it is built on a quicksand. Let but the country have a full and free representation, and to that will men look for the expression of public opinion, and the press will no more be able to dictate, as now, when none else can speak the sense of the people. Will its influence wholly cease? God forbid! Its just influence will continue, but confined within safe and proper bounds. It will continue, long may it continue, to watch the conduct of public men—to watch the proceedings even of a reformed legislature—to watch the people themselves—a safe, an innoxious, a useful instrument, to enlighten and improve mankind! But its overgrown power—its assumption to speak in the name of the nation—its pretension to dictate and to command, will cease with the abuse upon which alone it is founded, and will be swept away, together with the other creatures of the same abuse, which now “fright our isle from its propriety.”

Those portentous appearances, the growth of later times, those figures that stalk abroad, of unknown stature, and strange form—unions of leagues, and musterings of men in myriads, and conspiracies against the exchequer; whence do they spring, and how come they to haunt our shores? What power engendered those uncouth shapes, what multiplied the monstrous births till they people the land? Trust me, the same power which called into frightful existence, and armed with resistless force, the Irish volunteers of 1782—the same power which rent in twain your empire, and raised up thirteen republics—the same power which created the Catholic Association, and gave it Ireland for a portion. What power is that? Justice denied—rights withheld—wrongs perpetrated—the force which common injuries lend to millions—the wickedness of using the sacred trust of government as a means of indulging private caprice—the idiocy of treating Englishmen like the children of the South Sea Islands—the phrensy of believing, or making believe, that the adults of the nineteenth century can be led like children, or driven like barbarians! This it is that has conjured up the strange sights at which we now stand aghast! And shall we persist in the fatal error of combating the giant progeny, instead of extirpating the execrable parent? Good God! Will men never learn wisdom, even from their own experience? Will they never believe, till it be too late, that the surest way to prevent immoderate desires being formed, ay, and unjust demands enforced, is to grant in due season the moderate requests of justice? You stand, my lords, on the brink of a great event; you are in the crisis of a whole nation's hopes

and fears. An awful importance hangs over your decision. Pause, ere you plunge! There may not be any retreat! It behoves you to shape your conduct by the mighty occasion. They tell you not to be afraid of personal consequences in discharging your duty. I too would ask you to banish all fears; but, above all, that most mischievous, most despicable fear—the fear of being thought afraid. If you won't take counsel from me, take example from the statesmanlike conduct of the noble duke,* while you also look back, as you may, with satisfaction upon your own. He was told, and you were told, that the impatience of Ireland for equality of civil rights was partial, the clamour transient, likely to pass away with its temporary occasion, and that yielding to it would be conceding to intimidation. I recollect hearing this topic urged within this hall in July 1828; less regularly I heard it than I have now done, for I belonged not to your number—but I heard it urged in the self-same terms. The burthen of the cry was—It is no time for concession; the people are turbulent, and the Association dangerous. That summer passed, and the ferment subsided not; autumn came, but brought not the precious fruit of peace—on the contrary, all Ireland was convulsed with the unprecedented conflict which returned the great chief of the Catholics to sit in a Protestant Parliament; winter bound the earth in chains, but it controlled not the popular fury, whose surge, more deafening than the tempest, lashed the frail bulwarks of law founded upon injustice. Spring came; but no ethereal mildness was its harbinger, or followed in its train; the Catholics became stronger by every month's delay, displayed a deadlier resolution, and proclaimed their wrongs in a tone of louder defiance than before. And what course did you, at this moment of greatest excitement, and peril, and menace, deem it most fitting to pursue? Eight months before, you had been told how unworthy it would be to yield when men clamoured and threatened. No change had happened in the interval, save that the clamours were become far more deafening, and the threats, beyond comparison, more overbearing. What, nevertheless, did your lordships do? Your duty; for you despised the cuckoo-note of the season, "be not intimidated." You granted all that the Irish demanded, and you saved your country. Was there in April a single argument advanced, which had not held good in July? None, absolutely none, except the new height to which the dangers of longer delay had risen, and the increased vehemence with which justice was demanded; and yet the appeal to your pride, which had prevailed in July, was in vain made in April, and you wisely and patriotically granted what was asked, and ran the risk of being supposed to yield through fear.

But the history of the Catholic Claims conveys another important lesson. Though in right and policy and justice, the measure of relief could not be too ample, half as much as was received with little gratitude when so late wrung from you, would have been hailed twenty years before with delight; and, even the July preceding, the

* Wellington.

measure would have been received as a boon freely given, which, I fear, was taken with but sullen satisfaction in April, as a right long withheld. Yet, blessed be God, the debt of justice, though tardily, was at length paid, and the noble duke won by it civic honours which rival his warlike achievements in lasting brightness—than which there can be no higher praise. What, if he had still listened to the topics of intimidation and inconsistency which had scared his predecessors? He might have proved his obstinacy, and Ireland would have been the sacrifice.

Apply now this lesson of recent history—I may say of our own experience to the measure before us. We stand in a truly critical position. If we reject the bill, through fear of being thought to be intimidated, we may lead the life of retirement and quiet, but the hearts of the millions of our fellow-citizens are gone for ever; their affections are estranged; we and our order and its privileges are the objects of the people's hatred, as the only obstacles which stand between them and the gratification of their most passionate desire. The whole body of the aristocracy must expect to share this fate, and be exposed to feelings such as these. For I hear it constantly said, that the bill is rejected by all the aristocracy. Favour, and a good number of supporters, our adversaries allow it has among the people; the ministers, too, are for it; but the aristocracy, say they, is strenuously opposed to it. I broadly deny this silly, thoughtless assertion. What, my lords! the aristocracy set themselves in a mass against the people—they who sprang from the people—are inseparably connected with the people—are supported by the people—are the natural chiefs of the people! *They* set themselves against the people, for whom peers are ennobled—bishops consecrated—Kings anointed—the people to serve whom Parliament itself has an existence, and the Monarchy and all its institutions are constituted, and without whom none of them could exist for an hour! The assertion of unreflecting men is too monstrous to be endured—as a member of this House, I deny it with indignation. I repel it with scorn, as a calumny upon us all. And yet are there those who even within these walls speak of the bill augmenting so much the strength of the democracy, as to endanger the other orders of the state; and so they charge its authors with promoting anarchy and rapine. Why, my lords, have its authors nothing to fear from democratic spoliation? The fact is, that there are members of the present cabinet, who possess, one or two of them alone, far more property than any two administrations within my recollection; and all of them have ample wealth. I need hardly say, I include not myself, who have little or none. But even of myself I will say, that whatever I have depends on the stability of existing institutions; and it is as dear to me as the princely possessions of any amongst you. Permit me to say, that, in becoming a member of your House, I staked my all on the aristocratic institutions of the state. I abandoned certain wealth, a large income, and much real power in the state, for an office of great trouble, heavy responsibility, and very uncertain duration. I say, I gave up substantial power for

the shadow of it, and for distinction depending upon accident. I quitted the elevated station of representative for Yorkshire, and a leading member of the Commons. I descended from a position quite lofty enough to gratify any man's ambition; and my lot became bound up in the stability of this House. Then, have I not a right to throw myself on your justice, and to desire that you will not put in jeopardy all I have now left?

But the populace only, the rabble, the ignoble vulgar; are for the Bill! Then what is the Duke of Norfolk, Earl Marshal of England? What the Duke of Devonshire? What the Duke of Bedford? (Cries of *Order* from the Opposition.) I am aware it is irregular in any noble lord that is a friend to the measure; its adversaries are patiently suffered to call Peers even by their Christian and surnames. Then I shall be as regular as they were, and ask, does my friend John Russell, my friend William Cavendish, my friend Harry Vane, belong to the mob, or to the aristocracy? Have they no possessions? Are they modern names? Are they wanting in Norman blood, or whatever else you pride yourselves on? The idea is too ludicrous to be seriously refuted;—that the bill is only a favourite with the democracy, is a delusion so wild as to point a man's destiny towards St. Luke's. Yet many, both here and elsewhere, by dint of constantly repeating the same cry, or hearing it repeated, have almost made themselves believe that none of the nobility are for the measure. A noble friend of mine has had the curiosity to examine the list of Peers, opposing and supporting it, with respect to the dates of their creation, and the result is somewhat remarkable. A large majority of the Peers, created before Mr. Pitt's time, are for the bill; the bulk of those against it are of recent creation; and if you divide the whole into two classes, those ennobled before the reign of George III and those since, of the former, fifty-six are friends, and only twenty-one enemies of the reform. So much for the vain and saucy boast, that the real nobility of the country are against reform. I have dwelt upon this matter more than its intrinsic importance deserves, only through my desire to set right the fact, and to vindicate the ancient aristocracy from a most groundless imputation.

My lords, I do not disguise the intense solicitude which I feel for the event of this debate, because I know full well that the peace of the country is involved in the issue. I cannot look without dismay at the rejection of the measure. But grievous as may be the consequences of a temporary defeat—temporary it can only be; for its ultimate, and even speedy success, is certain. Nothing can now stop it. Do not suffer yourselves to be persuaded, that even if the present ministers were driven from the helm, any one could steer you through the troubles which surround you without reform. But our successors would take up the task in circumstances far less auspicious. Under them, you would be fain to grant a bill, compared with which, the one we now proffer you is moderate indeed. Hear the parable of the Sybil; for it conveys a wise and wholesome moral. She now appears at your gate, and offers you mildly the volumes—the precious

volumes—of wisdom and peace. The price she asks is reasonable; to restore the franchise, which, without any bargain, you ought voluntarily to give: you refuse her terms—her moderate terms,—she darkens the porch no longer. But soon, for you cannot do without her wares, you call her back;—again she comes, but with diminished treasures; the leaves of the book are in part torn away by lawless hands,—in part defaced with characters of blood. But the prophetic maid had risen in her demands—it is Parliaments by the Year—it is Vote by the Ballot—it is suffrage by the million! From this you turn away indignant, and for the second time she departs. Beware of her third coming; for the treasure you must have; and what price she may next demand, who shall tell? It may even be the mace which rests upon that woolsack. What may follow your course of obstinacy, if persisted in, I cannot take upon me to predict, nor do I wish to conjecture. But this I know full well, that, as sure as man is mortal, and to err is human, justice deferred enhances the price at which you must purchase safety and peace;—nor can you expect to gather in another crop than they did who went before you, if you persevere in their utterly abominable husbandry, of sowing injustice and reaping rebellion.

But among the awful considerations that now bow down my mind, there is one which stands pre-eminent above the rest. You are the highest judicature in the realm; you sit here as judges, and decide all causes, civil and criminal, without appeal. It is a judge's first duty never to pronounce sentence, in the most trifling case, without hearing. Will you make this the exception? Are you really prepared to determine, but not to hear the mighty cause upon which a nation's hopes and fears hang? You are. Then beware of your decision! Rouse not, I beseech you, a peace-loving, but a resolute people; alienate not from your body the affections of a whole empire. As your friend, as the friend of my order, as the friend of my country, as the faithful servant of my sovereign, I counsel you to assist with your uttermost efforts in preserving the peace, and upholding and perpetuating the constitution. Therefore, I pray and exhort you not to reject this measure. By all you hold most dear—by all the ties that bind every one of us to our common order and our common country, I solemnly adjure you—I warn you—I implore you—yea, on my bended knees, I supplicate you—reject not this bill!

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INTRODUCTION.

CHARITY ABUSES—EDUCATION COMMITTEE—SIR SAMUEL ROMILLY.

THE friends of Education had long been aware that there existed funds in England which ought to be applied towards the instruction of the people, and which were either diverted from that course, or were applied in a manner extremely inefficient, and very different from the intentions of those who had consecrated them to this pious use. The inquiries of the Education Committee of the House of Commons, appointed in 1816, were mainly directed to an examination of this very important subject. After continuing the investigation for some weeks, the committee made a report, in which the state and conduct of many schools founded by charitable persons in and near the metropolis was fully detailed, by means of an examination of the masters, trustees, and other persons entrusted with their management. The result of this inquiry was such as brought to light a great body of curious and interesting information respecting those endowments; it also produced unquestionable proofs of many establishments for education being conducted in an unsatisfactory manner; and it begot the strongest suspicions that there existed misapplication of funds destined to education, and generally of charitable funds. Nothing further was done upon the subject in that session; and the committee was only revived in the session 1817, to be adjourned, without further prosecuting the inquiry, after making a short report, recommending a grant of money to unendowed schools.

In 1818, however, Mr. Brougham again obtained the appointment of the Education Committee; and the impression left by the former proceedings remaining very strong and very general, their attention was first of all directed to the subject of charity abuses. The investigation of this subject soon became as interesting as it was extensive. Many cases of very gross misapplication were discovered; and the inquiry affected persons of distinguished station, or rather the ancestors of such persons; for, after property originally destined to charitable uses had, during a long course of years, been applied to private enjoyment, in some cases suddenly, but in others by gradual encroachments, no heavy blame could attach to those who only continued in the practices handed down to them by their ancestors, and of the illegality of which they were probably themselves ignorant. But the interest excited by this investigation soon became so great, as to interfere with the other objects of the committee's appointment; and everything that related to the extension of education, otherwise than by improving the application of endowments, was either neglected, or lost in the anxiety to prosecute an inquiry which, detecting abuses of those endowments, promised to the curiosity or the malignity of the public, or the spirit of faction, the discovery of individual delinquency in persons of eminent condition. The inquiry was rendered more interesting, and indeed

more important, by being extended to the universities and the great public schools. Eton and Winchester were thus examined, notwithstanding the objections made by the parties, especially by those connected with St. Mary Winton, who set up, in bar of all examination, the obligations of an oath not to reveal the secrets of the House. The committee heard the objection, examined the oath, and found it to contain a saving clause,—“*Nisi aliqua necessitate cogente, seu utilitate suadente de qua necessitate et utilitate, ipsi judicent,*”—whereupon the committee intimated to the witnesses, that the necessity had arisen, and that it was expedient for them to decide upon complying therewith; but it also laid down as clear law, that, although there had been no such saving clause at all, the oath never could have protected them against answering whatever questions were put by a competent authority, such as a Court of Justice, or a Committee of either House of Parliament. The inquiry was further extended to colleges in the universities; and a school under St. John's, Cambridge, was minutely examined, the abuses of which were such, that although in the early days of Mr. Wilberforce and Mr. Daniel Sykes, both educated there, it had flourished with above a hundred scholars, it had of late years only taught a single boy, the school-room being converted into a saw-pit. The fellows of St. John's being the visitors of this wealthy endowment, of which they had the exclusive patronage, the utter neglect of their duty required investigation; and received it very fully, but very fairly, at the committee's hands. Yet the outcry raised by calling the head of a house before a parliamentary committee was inconceivable; and it was much increased by the reverend person himself happening to burst into tears, upon a very simple and very civil question being addressed to him in very respectful terms. It is needless to add, that this feeling soon extended itself to all the colleges of both universities; and as the dissolution of Parliament prematurely closed the proceedings of the committee, every engine of influence and intrigue was put in motion to prevent a renewal of the inquiry next session. The labours of the committee, however, did not close without some most valuable information being obtained touching the state of education generally in the kingdom. Much evidence was examined on this point; and circulars having been addressed to every parish in England, Scotland, and Wales, the materials were afforded by the answers, for preparing a digest representing the state of education in every parish in the island. This valuable statistical document fills three folio volumes.

Notwithstanding the pains taken by all the colleges and public schools, by all their numerous supporters in the church, in the state, by members of both Houses of Parliament, all the creatures of the court, and almost every member of the aristocracy, of what party soever, vying with each other in their zeal to protect time-honoured abuses, and to stifle irreverent inquiry, the government found that the public voice would be too strong for them were they to resist investigation, and therefore gave notice the second day of the next session, of an immediate bill to extend the act of the last session. That act, brought in through the exertions of the committee, had appointed commissioners to inquire concerning the abuse of charities connected with education. The new act was to extend the inquiry to all charities, and to remedy certain important defects which had been pointed out in the former act. Mr. Brougham had, in the course of the vacation, addressed a letter to Sir Samuel Romilly, pointing out the defects of the act which the ministers had passed, and in which they had refused to insert some of the provisions deemed by the committee to be the most essential.

This sudden and not ill-contrived movement of Lord Castlereagh, of course prevented Mr. Brougham from renewing his motion for reappointing this committee, and the government bill was soon after introduced. But the important discussion on the currency question upon Mr. Peel's bill, for a while precluded all other discussions; and the charity abuse bill was postponed, with everything else, until that measure had been passed, together with the financial arrangements fancifully supposed by Mr. Abercromby, and one or two other Whigs, to be connected with it—persons who appeared often very fond of finding an occasion to vote with the Tory government. The charity abuse bill was then at length brought forward, and Mr. Brougham having been prevented from attending in his place for some weeks by a very dangerous illness, from which he narrowly escaped, was in the House merely

to move an amendment, when the attack upon the education committee and its chairman was unexpectedly made, which drew forth the following reply in their defence. The question raised by Mr. Brougham's opposition to the bill, related to the exemption of all charities having special visitors, which was continued in this bill from the act of 1818. He insisted upon this exemption being now omitted, on the ground of the worst abuses having been found in specially visited charities. Lord Castlereagh persevered in supporting the exemption, upon which the cathedrals, the greater schools, and the colleges, although themselves specially exempted by name, set great store; and after a short statement of the reasons for and against the clause had been made, Mr. Peel brought forward his attack upon the whole conduct of the education inquiry, in an able and impressive speech; to which, of course, Mr. Brougham replied. He was warmly supported by Mr. John Smith, Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Sheldon, Mr. Frederick Douglas, and others, members of the committee, who bore ample and impartial testimony to his courteous and fair conduct in the chair; nor was there any one, on either side of the House, who did not confess, that Mr. Peel, not himself a member of the committee, had been grievously misled by the misrepresentations of interested parties, to which he was peculiarly exposed from his position as member for the University of Oxford, the place in all the empire where the proceedings of the committee had excited the greatest alarm.

To the speech made on this remarkable occasion, there is prefixed the letter addressed to Sir Samuel Romilly, upon the subject of charity abuses, in which he took an extraordinary interest, naturally heightened by his great experience in the cases connected with the subject that came before the courts of equity where he had so long reigned the undisputed chief. It is fit that this occasion should not be passed over of attempting faintly to sketch the character and endowments of so great and so good a man, for the instruction of after ages.

Few persons have ever attained celebrity of name and exalted station, in any country, or in any age, with such unsullied purity of character, as this equally eminent and excellent person. His virtue was stern and inflexible—adjusted, indeed, rather to the rigorous standard of ancient morality than to the less ambitious and less elevated maxims of the modern code. But in this he very widely differed from the antique model upon which his character generally appeared to be framed, and also very far surpassed it, that there was nothing either affected or repulsive about him; and if ever a man existed who would more than any other have scorned the pitiful fopperies which disfigured the worth of Cato, or have shrunk from the harsher virtue of Brutus, Romilly was that man. He was, in truth, a person of the most natural and simple manners, and one in whom the kindest charities and warmest feelings of human nature were blended in the largest measure with that firmness of purpose, and unrelaxed sincerity of principle, in almost all other men found to be little compatible with the attributes of a gentle nature and the feelings of a tender heart.

The observer who gazes upon the character of this great man is naturally struck first of all with its most prominent feature, and that is the rare excellence which we have now marked, so far above every gift of the understanding, and which throws the lustre of mere genius into the shade. But his capacity was of the highest order; an extraordinary reach of thought; great powers of attention and of close reasoning; a memory quick and retentive; a fancy eminently brilliant, but kept in perfect discipline by his judgment and his taste, which was nice, cultivated, and severe, without any of the squeamishness so fatal to vigour—these were the qualities which, under the guidance of the most persevering industry, and with the stimulus of a lofty ambition, rendered him unquestionably the first advocate, and the most profound lawyer, of the age he flourished in; placed him high among the ornaments of the senate; and would, in all likelihood, have given him the foremost place among them all, had not the occupations of his laborious profession necessarily engrossed a disproportionate share of his attention, and made political pursuits fill a subordinate place in the scheme of his life. *Jurisperitorum disertissimus, disertorum vero jurisperitissimus.* As his practice, so his authority at the bar and with the bench was unexampled; and his success in Parliament was great and progressive. Some of his speeches, both forensic and Parliamentary, are nearly unrivalled in excellence. The reply, even as reported in 11 *Vesey junior*,

in the cause of *Hugonin v. Beasley*,* where the legal matters chiefly were in question, may give no mean idea of his extraordinary powers. The last speech which he pronounced in the House of Commons, upon a bill respecting the law of naturalization, which gave him occasion to paint the misconduct of the expiring Parliament in severe and even dark colours, was generally regarded as unexampled among the efforts of his eloquence; nor can they who recollect its effects ever cease to lament with tenfold bitterness of sorrow, the catastrophe which terminated his life, and extinguished his glory, when they reflect that the vast accession to his influence, from being chosen for Westminster, came at a time when his genius had reached its amplest display, and his authority in Parliament, unaided by station, had attained the highest eminence. The friend of public virtue, and the advocate of human improvement, will mourn still more sorrowfully over his urn than the admirers of genius, or those who are dazzled by political triumphs. For no one could know Romilly, and doubt that, as he only valued his own success and his own powers, in the belief that they might conduce to the good of mankind, so each augmentation of his authority, each step of his progress, must have been attended with some triumph in the cause of humanity and justice. True, he would at length, in the course of nature, have ceased to live; but then the bigot would have ceased to persecute—the despot to vex—the desolate poor to suffer—the slave to groan and tremble—the ignorant to commit crimes—and the ill-contrived law to engender criminality.

On these things all men are agreed; but if a more distinct account be desired of his eloquence, it must be said that it united all the more severe graces of oratory, both as regards the manner and the substance. No man argued more closely when the understanding was to be addressed; no man declaimed more powerfully when indignation was to be aroused or the feelings moved. His language was choice and pure; his powers of invective resembled rather the grave authority with which the judge puts down a contempt, or punishes an offender, than the attack of an advocate against his adversary and his equal. His imagination was the minister whose services were rarely required, and whose mastery was never for an instant admitted; his sarcasm was tremendous, nor always very sparingly employed. His manner was perfect, in voice, in figure, in a countenance of singular beauty and dignity; nor was anything in his oratory more striking or more effective than the heartfelt sincerity which it throughout displayed, in topic, in diction, in tone, in look, in gesture. "In Scauri oratione sapientis hominis et recti, gravitas summa, et naturalis quedam inerat auctoritas, non ut causam, sed ut testimonium dicere pntares. Significabat enim non prudentiam solum, sed, quod maxime rem continebat, fidem."†

Considering his exalted station at the bar, his pure and unsullied character, and the large space which he filled in the eye of the country, men naturally looked for his ascent to the highest station in the profession of which he was, during so many years, the ornament and the pride. Nor could any one question that he would have presented to the world the figure of a consummate judge. He alone felt any doubt upon the extent of his own judicial qualities; and he has recorded in his journal (that invaluable document in which he was wont to set down freely his sentiments on men and things) a modest opinion, expressing his apprehension, should he ever be so tried, that men would say of him "*dignus imperio nisi imperasset.*" With this single exception, offering so rare an instance of impartial self-judgment, and tending of itself to its own refutation, all who had no interest in the elevation of others, have held his exclusion from the supreme place in the law, as one of the heaviest items in the price paid for the factious structure of our practical government.

In his private life and personal habits he exhibited a model for imitation, and an object of unqualified esteem. All his severity was reserved for the forum and the senate, when vice was to be lashed, or justice vindicated, the public delinquent

* A case exceedingly resembling this, *Macabe v. Hussey*, was argued in the House of Lords in October 1831, by Mr. O'Connell, and his argument was a masterpiece, according to the judgment of all who heard it.

† Cic. *Brutus*.

exposed, or the national oppressor overawed. In his family and in society, where it was his delight, and the only reward of his unremitting labours, to unbend, he was amiable, simple, natural, cheerful. The vast resources of his memory—the astonishing economy of time, by which he was enabled to read almost every work of interest that came from the press of either his hereditary or his native country, either France or England—the perfect correctness of his taste, refined to such a pitch, that his pencil was one of no ordinary power, and his verses, when once or twice only he wrote poetry, were of great merit—his freedom from affectation—the wisdom of not being above doing ordinary things in the ordinary way—all conspired to render his society peculiarly attractive, and would have made it courted, even had his eminence in higher matters been far less conspicuous. While it was the saying of one political adversary, the most experienced and correct observer* among all the parliamentary men of his time, that he never was out of his place while Romilly spoke without finding that he had cause to lament his absence—it was the confession of all who were admitted to his private society, that they forgot the lawyer, the orator, and the patriot, and had never been aware, while gazing on him with admiration, how much more he really deserved that tribute than he appeared to do when seen from afar.

If defects are required to be thrown into such a sketch, and are deemed as necessary as the shades in a picture, or, at least, as the more subdued tones of some parts for giving relief to others, this portraiture of Romilly must be content to remain imperfect. For what is there on which to dwell for blame, if it be not a proneness to prejudice in favour of opinions resembling his own, a blindness to the defects of those who held them, and a prepossession against those who held them not? While there is so very little to censure, there is unhappily much to deplore. A morbid sensibility embittered many hours of his earlier life, and when deprived of the wife whom he most tenderly and justly loved, contributed to bring on an inflammatory fever, in the paroxysm of which he untimely met his end.

The letter here printed was communicated in manuscript to him while attending the sick bed of that excellent person, whose loss brought on his own. It tended to beguile some of those sorrowful hours, the subject having long deeply engaged his attention; and it was the last thing that he read. His estimate of its merits was exceedingly low; at least he said he was sure no tract had ever been published on a more dry subject, or was likely to excite less attention. The interest of the subject, however, was much undervalued by him; for the letter ran through eight editions in the month of October.†

That he highly approved of the labours of the committee, however, and that the conduct of its chairman shared fully in his approval, there can be no doubt. In the last will which he made there is a warm expression of personal regard and a strong testimony to public merits, accompanying a desire that his friend would join with another whom he had long known intimately, and whom he consequently most highly and most justly esteemed, Mr. Whishaw, in performing the office of literary executor. The manuscripts which he left were numerous and important. The most interesting are the beautiful sketches of his early life, and the journal to which reference has already been made. But his commentaries upon subjects connected with jurisprudence are those of the greatest value; for they show that most of the reforms of which he maintains the expediency, have since his decease been adopted by the legislature; and they thus form a powerful reason for adopting those others which he recommends, and which are not now less favoured by the general opinion of mankind; than were the former class at the early period when he wrote. The injunction to his friends contained in his will, was truly characteristic of the man. He particularly desired them, in determining whether or not the manuscripts should be published, only to regard the prospect there was of their being in any degree serviceable to mankind, and by no means to throw away a thought upon

* Mr. Charles Long, afterwards Lord Farnborough.

† The last book of any importance read by him was Mr. Hallam's first great work, of which he justly formed the highest opinion, and recommended the immediate perusal of it to the author of the letter, as a contrast to that performance, in respect of the universal interest of the subject.

any injury which the appearance of any unfinished works might do to his literary character. Whoever knew him, indeed, was well persuaded that in all his exertions his personal gratification never was for a moment consulted, unless as far as whatever he did, or whatever he witnessed in others, had a relish for him exactly proportioned to its tendency towards the establishment of the principles which formed, as it were, a part of his nature, and towards the promotion of human happiness, the grand aim of all his views. This is that colleague and friend whose irreparable loss his surviving friends have had to deplore, through all their struggles for the good cause in which they had stood by his side; a loss which each succeeding day renders heavier, and harder to bear, when the misconduct of some, and the incapacity of others, so painfully recall the contrast of one whose premature end gave the first and the only pang that had ever come from him; and all his associates may justly exclaim in the words of Tully regarding Hortensius, "*Augebat etiam molestiam, quod magnâ sapientium civium bonorumque penuriâ, vir egregius, conjunctissimusque mecum consiliorum omnium societate, alienissimo reipublicæ tempore extinctus, et auctoritatis, et prudentiæ suæ triste nobis desiderium reliquerat: dolebamque, quod non, ut plerique putabant, adversarium, aut obrectatorem laudum mearum, sed socium potius et consortem gloriosi laboris amiseram.*"

L E T T E R

TO

SIR SAMUEL ROMILLY, M.P.

UPON THE

ABUSE OF CHARITIES.

OCTOBER, 1818.

"Whoever will examine the state of the Grammar Schools in different parts of this Kingdom, will see to what a lamentable condition most of them are reduced. If all persons had *equally* done their duty, we should not find, as is now the case, empty walls without scholars, and everything neglected but the receipt of salaries and emoluments."

Per Lord Kenyon, C. J. 6. T. R. 493.

"It is absolutely necessary, that it should be perfectly understood, that Charity Estates all over the Kingdom are dealt with in a manner most grossly improvident; amounting to the most direct Breach of Trust."

Per Lord Eldon, C. 13. Ves. 580.

MY DEAR FRIEND,—I have resolved to throw together in a letter, several facts and observations respecting the abuse of Charities, and especially respecting the bill, which, as chairman of the Education Committee, I introduced into Parliament last session. I prefer this mode of bringing the matter before the public, to making a statement in my place; because I shall in my own justification be under the necessity of touching upon several things personal to myself, and which I should therefore most unwillingly obtrude upon the House, whose kind indulgence, as I often experience it, I am very reluctant to abuse. It seems also material, that the subject should be fairly laid before the country without waiting for the meeting of Parliament, which may not take place until after Christmas.

Whoever has been permitted by the courtesy of the House, or au-

thorized by the appointment of a Committee to undertake the management of any important legislative measure, is responsible in the first instance for its success; and if he has, by influence which he could not resist, been prevented from pursuing his object in his own way, he owes to himself the duty of showing to whom the blame of the failure belongs. Yet I hardly think I should have been induced to give this explanation in the present case, had the comparatively insignificant question of my own conduct been alone involved in it. My belief is, that great as the errors are which have been committed, some good may yet be attained by directing the public attention to the proceedings under the Act; while, at all events, the defects of that measure, and of the steps already taken to execute it, can only be supplied by a full discussion of the whole subject.

I believe there never was a measure brought forward with more deliberation than the bill for inquiring into the abuse of charitable funds. The education committee of 1816, having observed many instances of malversation and of negligence in the management of such property, recommended a parliamentary commission, as the most effectual and economical mode of bringing to light the still more numerous cases of abuse which every one suspected to exist. In 1817, the committee again met; but my illness prevented it from doing more than repeating the recommendation of the former report. We knew well enough that a bill might easily have been carried through Parliament during the remaining part of the session; but sufficient time for maturing the details of the measure was wanting, and we felt the propriety of avoiding everything like rashness, even at the risk of being charged with procrastination. As soon as we were again appointed, last March, we applied ourselves to the subject of the bill, and its introduction being recommended in our report, I was instructed to move for leave to bring it in. I did so early in April. Every day's inquiries in the committee demonstrated the necessity of the measure, and threw light upon its details. Skilful professional men assisted me in preparing the bill; it underwent a minute discussion above stairs; it was then communicated to his Majesty's ministers and to the law officers of the Crown; and, as there was reason to apprehend that the principal opposition to it would be made in the Lords, it was submitted to the highest legal authority in that House, as well as to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, to whose province, I was informed, the subject in an especial manner appertained. About ten weeks elapsed from its introduction to the passing of the act; the whole time being occupied in discussing its provisions, and in altering almost every part of them again and again. I believe it was printed not fewer than six times.

If the framers of the measure cannot be accused of rashness or impatience, so neither are they liable to the charge of party-feeling or of undue prepossession in favour of their own views. The committee, composed of about forty members taken indiscriminately from all parts of the House, have agreed in every matter that has come before them from the first day of their appointment in 1816. I do not recollect a

single instance of a division. Of course, as always happens in committees, the regular attendance was confined to a few upon whom the labour chiefly devolved; but these were for the most part gentlemen who differ with me in politics; and a constant communication being maintained between those who took an active part in the inquiry and those who attended but seldom, the least dissension among us would have led to an immediate assembly of the greater part of our numbers. I have, therefore, a right to assume that a real and complete unanimity prevailed among us in all our proceedings.

Having the fortune to take an active part in the political business of Parliament, and to be involved in its contests, I was peculiarly solicitous to avoid everything that might seem to proceed from party attachments or dislikes. For a proof of this, I appeal to those members of his Majesty's government with whom I had the honour of communicating from time to time; and I am confident they will admit that I received every suggestion of theirs with the greatest respect. Indeed the changes which I adopted at their desire, sufficiently prove that, if I am liable to any charge, it is to the imputation of having surrendered too many of the provisions originally made in the bill. It is material that a few of these changes should here be mentioned.

As the bill at first stood, the commissioners were to be named in it. The ministers proposed that the appointment should be vested in the Crown; that is in themselves. To this important alteration the committee with extreme reluctance submitted rather than assented. We were aware that upon the fitness of the persons selected to carry on the inquiry its success mainly depended. We had before us the examples of the Commissions of Public Accounts, and of Naval and Military Inquiry, from which the country had derived the most signal benefits, chiefly, as we conceived, because the acts establishing those boards had nominated the members who were to form them. No private selection of commissioners, how conscientiously soever it might be performed, could give the same security against improper or inefficient appointments. Without accusing the minister to whose department it belouged of so foul a crime as a wilful prostitution of patronage in this most delicate matter, we felt that all men in high office are beset by applicants; that they most frequently trust to others for their information as to individual merit; and that private friendships often blind very respectable persons in the reports which they make or the suits which they prefer. We could not, indeed, believe that the Secretary of State was capable of choosing men whom the place might suit, rather than those suited to the place; that he could shut his eyes to the claims of acknowledged merit, and prefer unknown persons backed by powerful supporters; or that, instead of regarding their fitness for the new office, he should bestow the salary as the wages of former service. Least of all did a suspicion ever enter our minds that care might knowingly and wilfully be taken to avoid those men whose zeal for the cause, and whose habits of investigation gave a certain pledge that all abuses would be sifted to the bottom, and that the guilty would in no station be spared. Yet we were afraid that a certain degree of care-

lessness or easy good nature, the almost necessary attendant upon official habits, might be shown in the selection; and that he whom we were willing to believe incapable of voluntarily converting into a job the most sacred part of his patronage, or of taking precautions to screen the enormous delinquency of robbing the poor, might, from imperfect information, and in the hurry of a busy department, choose commissioners far less adapted to the objects of the act, than those upon whose fitness a public decision by the voice of Parliament should be pronounced. To assist the legislature in making this selection, we had applied ourselves with much attention in the committee, canvassing with perfect freedom the qualifications of many gentlemen who were at different times offered to our notice. And we were prepared to propose a list, in which was to be found the name of no one connected, however remotely, with any of ourselves. I may add, as far as regards myself, that all but one were of political connections adverse to my own; that I was upon a footing of intimacy with none of them; and that one gentleman, of undeniable qualifications, having been proposed, I desired his name might be no more mentioned, as he happened to be a near relation of mine. Some persons, whose opinions I highly respect, deemed that we acted unwisely in abandoning this main point of the nomination. But we only gave it up when we found the ministers determined to oppose the bill, unless they were allowed to name the commissioners. We still trusted that the power would not be abused; and we looked to the wholesome control of Parliament and the public for a security that the work would be done with diligence, upon whomsoever it might devolve.

The next change of importance related to the *quorum*. The whole excellence of the measure consisted in the ambulatory nature of the board; because, beside the great saving of expense, unless the commissioners repaired to the spot, it was quite vain to expect an effectual investigation of the various particulars relating to local abuses. But, as the performance of this duty would be both cumbrous and endless, if the whole commissioners were to go round the country in a body, it was provided that they should divide themselves into bodies of two each, and that four boards should thus at the same time carry on the inquiry, with an expedition greatly accelerated, and with a salutary rivalry among themselves. The ministers in the House of Lords changed the *quorum* from *two* to *three*, and left the whole number of commissioners *eight* as before; thus reducing the number of boards from *four* to *two*, and leaving *two* commissioners wholly unemployed. As it is perfectly well known even to beginners in arithmetic that *eight* is not divisible by *three*, I am reduced to the necessity of suspecting that the authors of this change have no serious intention that the board shall ever be divided at all; and that they mean to make the commissioners proceed by written interrogatories sent to different parts of the country. It is already stated out of doors that such a plan has been formed; I can only say, that it must render the whole inquiry a perfect mockery; and the labours of the last session, for the correction of abuses, will have ended in adding one of peculiar gross-

ness to the former number, by the creation of about a dozen sinecure places.

An addition was proposed by his Majesty's ministers, which we cheerfully adopted, regarding it as an improvement. They suggested the propriety of naming six honorary commissioners, who might form a superintending and central body, to advise and to regulate the proceedings of the whole. The personages who were proposed to fill this department united to great weight in the country commanding talents and confirmed habits of business. I need only mention the Speaker, Sir W. Grant, Lord Grenville, and the Bishop of London, to justify the satisfaction experienced by the committee at this part of the arrangement. It seemed even to furnish a security against the consequence of any defects in the choice of the stipendiary commissioners; and some whose confidence in the measure had been shaken by that choice being left in the crown, felt it revive when they were told that such men as I have named would at all events be placed at the head of the department.

The changes made in the powers of the commissioners were as important as the alterations in the construction of the board. They were deprived of all authority to prosecute their inquiries, unless by the *consent* of every person whom it might be necessary to examine; and they were only permitted to carry on even this ineffectual investigation into a class of abuses neither the most numerous nor the most flagrant. It seems hardly credible that any men affecting to have at heart the great objects of the bill should have so crippled its powers and narrowed its objects. Nevertheless, such I lament to say is the undeniable fact. In the first place, as to the powers—We had originally given the commissioners the same authority which rendered the naval and military inquiries so effectual. Imagining that persons concerned in any abuse might be unwilling to give evidence against themselves, or to produce documents which made them liable to refund large balances due to the poor, we had armed the commissioners with the power of compelling the production of papers, and obliging every one to answer such questions as did not criminate himself. The ministers in the House of Lords peremptorily insisted upon this provision being struck out. They said it was harsh—but why should any one complain of being forced to do what it is every one's duty to do, and what no one can refuse to do unless with the design of concealing some malversation? They represented it as indelicate to respectable trustees—but can any respectable trustee complain of being called upon to disclose the particulars of his conduct in the execution of his trust? They described it as unconstitutional—yet the same powers are possessed by all courts, even by commissioners of bankrupt. They called it unprecedented—yet they themselves, when in office with a truly great minister, the renown of whose naval exploits alone eclipses the glory of his civil administration, had furnished the precedent which we followed, and had passed the very act from which we copied verbatim the clause in our bill. They attempted, indeed, to escape from this dilemma by various outlets. My Lord Chancel-

lor said that he had always disapproved of that provision in Lord St. Vincent's act; yet he suffered it to pass without a division, and was, with my Lord Ellenborough, the principal advocate of the measure in the House of Lords. My Lord Sidmouth contented himself with observing, that many persons had objected to Lord St. Vincent's bill; but assuredly his lordship, then minister in the House of Commons, was not of the number; for he strenuously defended it against Mr. Canning, who alone, of the present cabinet, opposed it. A feeble effort was made to distinguish the objects of the two inquiries. But as to their importance—can any one maintain that the expenses of the dock-yards demand more rigorous investigation than the disposal of funds destined by benevolence for the relief of wretchedness; or that the conduct of the person who uses a sum of the public money without authority, and then replaces it, shall be sifted by every means of examination which can wring the truth from interested reluctance; while he who pockets thousands a-year belonging to the poor shall only be *invited* to disclose the state of his accounts, in order that his undue gains may cease, and his past accumulations be refunded? Then, as to the nature of the two inquiries—can it be contended that the power of examining all private merchants' accounts, in substance possessed by the naval commissioners, was less liable to abuse, or itself less vexatious, than the power of examining the accounts of trustees filling a public office? As for the clamour excited against the clause respecting title-deeds, no one who had read our bill could be deceived by it for a moment; because the possessor of a deed was only obliged to produce it, in case it related wholly to the charity; if any other matter whatever was contained in it, he was allowed to produce a copy of the part relating to the charity.

All our arguments, however, were unavailing. It was resolved that the commissioners should have no powers; and what is very remarkable, the bill had been suffered to pass through all its stages in the Commons without any objection being made to this essential part; although Mr. Canning and others had given notice of an opposition, and were present at all the debates upon it. The alteration was reserved for the Upper House, where one of the ministers proposed it, and none of his colleagues objected.

The objects of the bill were as materially limited as the powers of the commissioners had been crippled.

First, they were prohibited from inquiring generally into the state of education, although a great saving both of time and expense to the public would have been effected by allowing them to make that inquiry when they visited any district for other purposes.

Secondly, they were no longer to examine abuses of all charities, but only of those connected with the education of the poor—a most unfortunate change in the constitution of the board; for every one was aware how many malversations existed in charitable institutions wholly unconnected with education, and it was obviously a more natural, as well as a more economical course of proceeding, to authorize the commissioners to look into these at the same time that they

were examining the others, than to send one set of functionaries to investigate school charities, and then despatch a second body to go over the same ground, in order to see what the former had been ordered to overlook.

The instruction under which the committee acted confined its inquiries to charities connected with education. Nevertheless, we had accidentally been made acquainted with abuses of a very gross description in other charities, which the powers of the commission as now restricted cannot reach. We found that one corporation in Hampshire, entrusted with the management of estates worth above £2000 a-year for the use of the poor, let them for £200 or £300 on fines, and would give no account of the manner in which those fines were applied. The same body, it was stated, employed a sum of money confided to it for charitable purposes in payment of its own debts. At Mere, in Lincolnshire, is an endowment for a warden and poor brethren of a very ancient date. The warden and his lessees seem to be well provided for, whatever may be the lot of the brethren; the estate consists of 650 acres, five miles from Lincoln; it is let for only half-a-guinea an acre, though it pays neither tithe nor poor's rate; and £24 a-year is the whole sum allotted to the poor brethren. The bishop of the diocese is both patron and visitor; he has given the wardenship to his nephew; and the former warden resigned it upon being promoted by the same prelate to a living in his gift. The son of that right reverend person is master of Spital Hospital in the same county. Beside other landed property, he is in possession of one estate worth £600 or £700 a-year in right of his office; and all that he pays to the poor is £27, 4s. to four or five pensioners. At Wellingborough, in Northamptonshire, there are lands belonging to different charities, of which only one is connected with education; a short time ago they were let for £68, although worth near £1100; and the trustees at one period enjoyed the leases. In the parish of Yeovil in Somersetshire, there are estates possessed by trustees, and destined to four different charities, one only of which is a school. Limited as the commissioners now are, they may examine those trustees as to one part of their trust; but they must order them to be silent as to the other three. They may inspect the deeds and accounts relating to the school revenue, but they must suddenly shut the book when they perceive any mention of the other charities. And yet all the four seem to have been equally abused. An estate worth £700 a-year only educates seven or eight boys; lands valued at £1100 or £1200 a-year only afford a wretched pittance to sixteen paupers; and property worth £150 a-year is let for £2 : 1 : 4, chiefly to the trustees themselves. There are two estates belonging to the poor of Croydon, which ought to bring between £1000 and £1500 a-year, and yet are worth nothing from being badly let on 90 years' leases; but into this the commissioners must not look when they go to examine the abuses in the hospital, because those estates are unconnected with education. In that hospital itself they will find but little within their jurisdiction; it is, indeed, full of abuse; but only a small portion of the charity

belongs to the school, and even that is protected from inquiry by the appointment of a visitor—which leads me to the next head of exemption.

Thirdly, among charities connected with education there was introduced a large class of exceptions, comprehending not only the universities and the public schools down to Rugby, but generally all charities having special “visitors, governors, or overseers.” Now it happens that almost every considerable charity is subject to special visitation; consequently what remains for the operations of the commissioners lies within a sufficiently narrow compass.

This last alteration of the bill we justly viewed as a matter of extreme regret. For of the many instances of gross abuse which had come to our knowledge, and some of which will be seen in the evidence now made public, there was hardly one which this clause did not withdraw from the jurisdiction of the commissioners. Thus Pocklington school, with a large revenue, has been suffered to fall into decay, so that only one boy was taught, and the room converted into a saw-pit;* yet it has visitors (St. John’s College, Cambridge), who, probably, from ignorance of the evil, had taken no step to correct it before last winter. So, the property of the Huntingdon school is grossly misapplied; the land is let to accommodate the trustees, and is made the means of supporting a political interest in that borough; yet the charity has visitors in the persons of some of those very trustees, who are thus by the exemption in the act secured against all inquiry. It should seem too that St. Bee’s school is equally exempted. But that its affairs merit investigation clearly appears by the evidence; for we there find that leases of its land were granted at a remote period, for 1000 years at a very low fixed rent;† that at a more recent date, the valuable minerals were leased at a mere trifle (£3, 14s.) for the term of 800 or 900 years, to one of the trustees; that one of the present trustees now enjoys the lease; and that a decided majority of the others are clergymen, holding livings under him, and supporting him in his management of the concern. As none of them has made any attempt to set aside a lease which every one must perceive to be utterly void, and as one of their number has expressed his apprehensions of engaging in a contest with so powerful an adversary, it may be presumed that such considerations alone could deter them from performing what was obviously their duty to the charity; and the inference is irresistible, that this was exactly a case which demanded the interposition of the commissioners. Certain estates devised for the purposes of education at Reading appear to have been let as late as 1811 for nearly the same rent that they fetched in Charles the Second’s reign. It is now considerably raised; but some of the lands seem still to be much underlet; at any rate an inquiry would be highly beneficial where such negligence appears so recently to have prevailed:

* An attempt was made to deny this; but it seems to be the result of the evidence taken together. At any rate, it is admitted that the proper school-room was wholly disused, except for keeping lumber and working materials.

† The rent is about £100, the value of the tenements being above £8000 a-year.

yet all examination is precluded by the proviso; for there is a special visitor. The hospital at Croydon founded by Archbishop Whitgift is protected from investigation by a similar appointment; but the evidence plainly shows that all is not right there. The estates are valued by the surveyor of the house itself at £2673 a-year; yet they are let for £860; and down to 1812 they fetched no more than £336. A free school too is specially appointed to be kept for all the inhabitants of Croydon; but none has within the memory of man been taught, although the master receives his emoluments, teaching another school for his own profit, and although the inhabitants have established a seminary upon the new plan to give education at their own expense to the poor of the place, in the very school-room which Archbishop Whitgift devised for their gratuitous instruction. These abuses, I verily believe, are unknown to the distinguished prelate who is visitor of the hospital. Whoever fills his station in the church has, beside the ordinary functions of his province, the superintendence of a vast number of charitable institutions in various parts of the kingdom; and it is quite impossible that his eye should be always fixed upon the abuses which silently creep into each. Until they are denounced to him, he must of necessity be ignorant of their existence, and the office of accuser is a thankless one at the best. The visitatorial power is only put in motion at stated periods; and even then, if no one comes forward to complain, credit is naturally given to the members of the corporation for doing their duty and obeying the statutes. But, on the other hand, the assistance of such a body as the commissioners in supplying the want of accusers, and discovering latent abuses, is precisely that which a conscientious visitor would desire. He can feel no jealousy of any encroachment upon his rights, for these remain as before; the only difference is, that he has now to exercise his office with a more perfect knowledge of the matters within his jurisdiction, the inquiries of the commissioners having brought to his notice all the points to which his superintending power should be directed for the purposes of reformation. I think we have a right to assume that the Archbishop of Canterbury viewed the bill in this, its true light, from the very liberal and candid support which his grace was pleased to give it.

Nothing, indeed, can be more groundless than the jealousy which appears to have been raised by it in other quarters. In what respect could the proceedings of the commissioners interfere with any person's functions, whether as trustee or as visitor? They were only empowered to inquire and to report; to discover abuses, and to lay them before the Parliament and the country. Here their authority ended; they could make no order whatever for correcting the mismanagement which they detected, were it ever so glaring. To search for the evil, and expose it to the light, was their whole office; the remedy was reserved for Parliament, if the application of it required legislative interference; but, in the first instance, it was left to the parties themselves whose conduct had been investigated, and if they failed to amend their ways, the visitors were unquestionably entitled to inter-

pose as if the act had never passed. To describe the commissioners as coming into conflict with the visitors, was a gross misrepresentation of the powers and functions of both. Yet it was entirely upon this misrepresentation, that the clause exempting charities specially visited was built. The pretext that it was authorized by the example of the statute of Elizabeth is utterly unfounded. The commissioners of Charitable Uses, under that act, have powers which would interfere directly with those of special visitors; for they are not merely to investigate, but to make orders and decrees; they are in fact to sit as a court, and they are entitled to try issues of fact by a jury. The clause exempting charities specially visited from their jurisdiction, was therefore necessary to preserve the visitatorial power according to the founder's intentions. But what founder ever dreamt of preventing any inquiry from being made into the state of his charity? What founder could, were he alive to see it, be otherwise than gratified by an investigation, the result of which can have no possible tendency, but that of enabling the visitor appointed by himself to exercise with full effect, the powers of superintendence conferred by him for the express purpose of correcting all abuses in the trusts created by his foundation?

I have mentioned a few instances of abuses brought to light by the labours of the committee, all growing up to maturity in charities which have special visitors, and which the commissioners are bound to overlook by virtue of the exemptions introduced into the bill. It may perhaps be thought that these have been already examined, and that our report, with respect to them at least, will be sufficient to produce a speedy reform. But I cannot quite indulge in this hope. We had not the means of sifting those cases to the bottom: we plainly perceived that much remained to be investigated in each. Thus, the sums to be refunded by the Yeovil trustees severally we had no means of tracing. We were equally unable to ascertain how much in value of the St. Bees school property remained in the hands of the noble lord, who sustains in his own person the double character of trustee and lessee. It was in like manner impossible to estimate the arrears due to the poor from the worthy magistrates of Huntingdon, and the noble family whose political interest in that borough has been founded upon the misapplication of the charity estates. Nor do we see, in the past conduct of any of those parties, the slightest reason to expect that the publication of our report would of itself have the immediate effect of restoring the poor to their rights. On the contrary, an extraordinary pertinacity had been evinced by them all in defence of their actual possessions, and in resisting every investigation of their titles.

Besides, there is every reason to believe that abuses of a similar description, which we had not time to investigate, exist in all parts of the country. The parochial returns to our circular letters, have brought cases to our knowledge, which no board sitting in London could examine within a moderate period of time. Other abuses omit-

ted in those returns may be reasonably supposed to prevail; and let it be observed that the probability of abuses existing in any charity, is by no means diminished by the circumstance of a special visitor having been appointed. In general, the visitor resides at a distance; he is most commonly an official person with other duties to engage him, as the bishop of the diocese, or the head of a house at one of the Universities; he is usually directed to visit once in so many years; and if no term is specified, he is only by law obliged to visit every third year. Above all, the exemption in the statute of Elizabeth, has increased the probability of mismanagement in such charities, by preventing them from ever being examined by a commission of charitable uses; while a great proportion of the other charities have undergone this investigation once or twice since their foundation. Now, the transferring of the proviso from the statute of Elizabeth to the present act, has precisely the effect of confining the inquiries of the commissioners to those charities, most of which have already been examined; and of making them pass over those which have never before been looked into, except by their visitors.

If any person should still conceive that the eye of the visitor is sufficient, I would beseech them to consider two things—the slowness with which the knowledge of the evil reaches him, and the risk of his requiring superintendence himself. Abuses are generally speaking of slow growth; they creep into public institutions with a sure pace, indeed, if unchecked, but they move on by degrees; and those who are constantly habituated to see their progress, become accustomed to it, and cease to think of it. These, however, are chiefly the persons on whom the visitor must rely for his information; and, even where the change is more rapid and the abuse more glaring, men who live on the spot are not likely to court the odious office of accusing their neighbours. The grand difference between the visitor and the commissioners is, that the former, for the most part, will only examine where there is a charge; whereas the latter are to examine at all events, and to find out whether there be ground for complaining although nobody may have actually preferred a complaint. Then what security have we against negligence or connivance in the visitors themselves? *Quis custodiet ipsos custodes?* True, the founders have intrusted them with the superintendence; but, where no visitation is appointed, the founders have reposed an entire confidence in the trustees; and yet no one has ever contended that *they* should be exempt from the inquiries of the commissioners? What good reason then can be assigned for investigating abuses committed wholly by trustees, and sparing those committed by trustees and visitors jointly? St. John's College is visitor of Pocklington school; for years the gross perversion of its ample revenues, known to all Yorkshire, had never penetrated into Cambridge. The dean and chapter of Lincoln have the patronage as well as the superintendence of Spital charity; yet they allow the warden, son of the diocesan, to enjoy the produce of large estates, devised to him in trust for the poor of two parishes as well as of the hospital, while he only pays a few pounds

to four or five of the latter.* The bishop himself is patron and visitor of Mere, and permits the warden, his nephew (for whom he made the vacancy by promoting his predecessor) to enjoy or underlet a considerable trust estate, paying only £24 a-year to the poor. The evidence shows that the visitors of the Huntingdon hospital are the parties chiefly concerned in misapplying its funds—being themselves trustees—occupying the charity lands for trifling rents—and using the estate for election purposes. I am very far from asserting that the apparent negligence of St. John's College, the apparent connivance of the chapter and the bishop, and the apparent participation of the corporators are incapable of explanation; but at least these facts show the necessity of an inquiry into the conduct of visitors as well as trustees; while the alterations made in the bill by his majesty's ministers, shut out all inquiry, and prevent the public from receiving any explanation.

The exception of which I have been speaking is the more to be lamented, because the charities thus screened from the investigation of the commissioners, are in the ordinary course of events, and as the law now stands, almost certain to escape every other inquiry. From the jurisdiction created by the statute of Elizabeth, they are wholly exempted; and that of the Court of Chancery extends to them only in a limited degree. Where funds have been misapplied, the court will interfere notwithstanding the appointment of a visitor; but then its interposition is confined entirely to this breach of trust. It will take no cognizance whatever of any other neglect or misconduct on the part of the trustees. They may have perverted the charity, to purposes wholly foreign to the founder's intention; they may have suffered the school to decay, while the master reaped the profits; they may, through folly, or even by design, have adopted measures calculated to ensure its ruin;—still if there be a special visitor, who neglects or violates his duty, permitting or abetting the misconduct of the managers, courts of equity cannot entertain the discussion of their proceedings, unless the funds are directly misapplied. Thus I take it to be clear, that neither Whitgift's Hospital nor Pocklington School, could have been examined by information or petition to the Lord Chancellor, although large revenues are expended, in the one case, upon the education of a single child, and in the other to make a complete sinecure for the master. In the case of a richly endowed school at Berkhamstead, his lordship admitted that he could not interfere, although he saw the master teaching only boy and the usher living in Hampshire.† But even as to direct breaches of trust, a court of equity affords most inadequate means of inquiry. No prudent man

* The Rev. Incumbent states, that there are no poor in Spital; but the endowment is in favour of the "parish poor of Little Carlton and Skellingthorpe," the charge of maintaining whom appears, from the poor abstract, to be from £200 to £300 a-year.

† 2 *Vezey and Beames*, 138. His lordship was obliged to decree the money received for fines, then about £5000, to the master and usher, according to the foundation, leaving their conduct in office to be examined by the visitor.

will easily be induced to involve himself in a Chancery suit, where his private interests are at stake. To expect that any one will do so from the love of justice, and a sense of duty towards the public, is in all but a few extraordinary cases truly chimerical. Nor will the facts disclosed in the committee's report, tend to lessen this very natural dislike of such proceedings. We there find the parish officers of Yeovil ruined by their attempts to obtain justice for the poor; a respectable solicitor and a clergyman in Huntingdon, expending large sums of their own money in the same pious work, and rewarded by the general contempt and even hatred of their fellow-citizens; a worthy inhabitant of Croydon, exposed to every kind of vexation for similar exertions, and his coadjutor falsely and maliciously indicted for perjury; and, not to multiply instances, the venerable head of a college at Oxford deterred from exposing the *St. Bees* case, by the dread of a conflict with his powerful colleague, before a tribunal where a long purse is as essential as a good cause. You, better than any man, are acquainted with the defects of this remedy; and you are no less impartial than competent to decide upon them. Elevated to an eminence in the Court of Chancery, which no other advocate, perhaps, ever attained in any department of forensic life, you can hardly be supposed to feel prejudice against its proceedings. Yet to you I will venture without hesitation to appeal; and I am confident you will admit that abuses which are fated to flourish in the shade, until a suit in equity exposes, and a decree extirpates them, must live and grow until they work the ruin of the institutions to which they cling.

I have now gone through the principal changes which his Majesty's ministers thought proper to make in the bill; and when their magnitude is considered—when it is perceived how little of the original plan was left—when it is found that the commissioners were to be chosen by the crown, deprived of the usual powers of inquiry, and prevented from directing their attention to the objects which most demanded investigation—it will naturally be asked why the friends of the measure consented to accept of so mutilated a substitute for it; why they did not at once appeal to Parliament and the country, from the decision of a cabinet which had clearly shown themselves unfriendly to all effectual exposure of the abuses universally complained of? I must take upon myself, in common with several persons whose opinions I deeply respect, the responsibility of having been willing to accept a law, the inadequacy of which we admitted, rather than allow the session to pass without obtaining anything at all. Various considerations influenced this decision. The manifest hostility to the whole measure, which appeared in the House of Lords, was not among the least of these. Vehemently opposed upon its principle by the chief law authorities, and a formidable body of the prelates—feebly and reluctantly supported by the ministers of the crown—the bill had been sent to a committee only by a majority of one; and some who gave their voices for its commitment, in the hope, apparently, of its complete mutilation, announced their intention to throw

it out on the third reading, whatever changes it might undergo; thus consenting to prolong its existence for a moment, that they might first mangle what they were bent upon destroying. When it came out of the committee, the *amendments* had indeed so entirely defeated the whole object in view, that no man, how great soever his wish to conciliate and accommodate, could think of lending himself to the unworthy farce of passing such an act. The committee, upon learning the scope of those alterations, which left the bill a mere dead letter,* agreed with me in resolving to reject it, and proceed in the House of Commons by way of address. There being very little reason to doubt that the address would be carried, the enemies of the bill in the Lords consented to recommit it, to give up several of their amendments, and to withdraw their opposition to the third reading. Such being the feelings entertained by the lords towards the whole plan—feelings of which an adequate idea could only be formed by a near observer of the temper in which it was discussed; and so great being the difficulty of obtaining the assent of their lordships to the inquiry, even crippled and confined as it now is; we felt compelled to rest satisfied with the little we had thus reluctantly obtained from them, apprehensive that any other course might involve the two Houses in a serious difference of opinion, alike prejudicial to the public weal and to the success of the measure in question. Nor were we without hopes that the experience of the act, when put in force, might quiet the unfounded alarms which prevailed among their lordships, and prepare them for an extension of its powers at a future time.

I must further mention as a reason for the line of conduct pursued, that we thought there was a mode of supplying indirectly the want of powers in the commissioners. They would have an opportunity of reporting the names of all persons who refused to be examined, or to deliver up documents in their possession. A dread of exposure to the suspicion which this concealment must create, would probably induce many trustees, however reluctant, to obey the commissioners; while those who obstinately held out might be examined by the committee on its revival next session. In like manner, we presumed that the reports of the commissioners would direct the attention of the committee to all charities with special visitors; and that, if Parliament persisted in refusing to subject these to the scrutiny of the new board, the committee might proceed, as it had already begun, to examine them. Thus we conceived that the act, with all its imperfections, would do some good in the meantime, and lead to still further benefits hereafter. Convinced of the necessity of a thorough investigation,

* The two provisions which principally tended to defeat the object of the bill, and which were afterwards given up by their lordships, were these: The commissioners were only authorized to inquire into abuses respecting which they had information previously laid before them upon oath; nay, they could not summon a witness without oath being first made, that he had material information to communicate. They were also prohibited from asking for any paper, unless it wholly related to a separate charity, and where it contained other matter, they were not allowed to call for extracts or copies of the parts relating to the charity.

we thought that the sooner a beginning was made in it the better. Unable to get all we wished, we deemed it wise and prudent to take what we could get, and not impracticably reject the advantages within our reach, because they were less important than we looked for, and were entitled to. An honest execution of the act, such as it was, seemed to promise material benefits to the country, provided the certain reappointment of the committee next session supported the commissioners in the discharge of their duties, and supplied the defects in their jurisdiction as well as in their powers. But upon that revival, and upon the good faith with which the act should be carried into effect both by the ministers and the board, everything manifestly depended.

It is with great pain that I now feel myself compelled by a sense of duty, to state the disappointment of the expectations which, in common with the rest of the committee, I had entertained, that his Majesty's ministers would faithfully discharge the trust thus reposed in them. On so important a matter I cannot allow considerations of a personal nature to impose silence upon me, or to qualify the expression of an opinion which I have reluctantly been forced to adopt, that a full and searching exposure of abuses is not in the contemplation of those who have issued the commission. It would be acting from a false delicacy towards individuals, for whom in their private capacity I can feel nothing but respect, were I to abstain from frankly urging this complaint, and substantiating it by entering into particulars, how painful soever the detail may prove to me. Before I proceed, let me observe, that the attempts made to frustrate the bill entirely; the great mutilations actually performed upon it; the indisposition to pass it even in the least efficient form—strongly indicated a disposition unfavourable to the inquiry, and excited the vigilance if not the suspicions of its friends towards the manner in which the powers conferred by it should be executed. We are now to see whether those unfavourable impressions have been confirmed or removed.

If the first object of the ministers had been to render the act as effectual as possible, they would naturally have listened to the recommendation of the committee in the formation of the board. It was known to every person that the individuals suggested by us, were selected solely because they appeared to be the best qualified for the office. No suspicion had for a moment existed in any quarter, indeed the composition of the committee made it impossible to suspect, that party views had influenced us in the suggestion of a single name. At all events, there would have been no impropriety in the noble Secretary of State conferring with some of us who had applied closely to the business. The prerogative of the Crown is not supposed to suffer, nor the dignity of its ministers to be lowered, by freely communicating with members of the House of Commons for other purposes. Where could have been the harm of consulting a committee indiscriminately taken from all parts of the House, upon a matter which had occupied so much of their attention? His lordship thought otherwise; of the gentlemen pointed out by us, only two have been

put in the commission; and these, I have reason to think, by no means through our recommendation, but doubtless from the accident, a fortunate one for the public, of their having more favoured patrons.

Of the other paid commissioners, I have understood that some look forward to the duties of the office as quite compatible with those of a most laborious profession; while others are supposed to regard the existence of abuses generally, in any establishment, with an unwilling if not incredulous mind. Nay, I have reason to believe, that one very respectable member of the board has publicly professed an opinion, that a great anxiety for the welfare of the poor is symptomatic of Jacobinism. Exclusive devotion to professional vocations, is a meritorious frame of mind; but does not perhaps very naturally point a man out as fit for a second occupation. A fond disposition to find everything right in our political system; an aversion to believe in the existence of defects; a proneness to charge with disaffection those who spy them out; a tendency to suspect all who busy themselves for the poor as influenced by sinister motives, and even as contrivers of political mischief—these, for aught I know, may be praiseworthy feelings; or amiable weaknesses; or excusable mistakes; and far be it from me to think the worse of any man who is honestly influenced by what may seem the least rational of such propensities. But then I take leave to think that they form very indifferent qualifications for sitting at a board, the object of which is to pry into abuses, to expose errors and malversations, and to drag forth to public view those who have robbed the poor of their rights. Persons under the influence of such impressions will enter upon their inquisitorial functions with a disposition to find ground of justification rather than of charge; will reluctantly open their eyes to truths which thwart their favourite prejudices; and will feel desirous that their inquiries should convict of exaggeration the statements now before the public.

That the choice of my Lord Sidmouth has been guided by this consideration, or by any wish to quiet the fears of charitable trustees, I am far from asserting; on the contrary, I rather believe, that the usual motives may have influenced the appointments—favour towards similarity of political sentiments, and the wish to oblige political connections. But it seems impossible to maintain that his lordship passed over certain names by mere accident. These omissions require further notice as throwing light upon the spirit in which the ministers are executing the act.

The committee had in their report strongly recommended to the attention of Parliament, and of the ministers, two professional gentlemen to whose voluntary assistance they had been greatly indebted, during the course of their inquiries. I allude to Mr. Parry and Mr. Koe. Of their eminent qualifications to fill the place of commissioners, every one who attended to our proceedings was aware. The case of Mr. Parry was, indeed, peculiarly strong. It happened that he had for some years devoted himself privately to the very investigation which the board was to prosecute. He had been occupied in examining the abuses in the Berkshire Charities, upon which he had just

published a valuable treatise. He was the very man for the new office; he was a commissioner, if I may so speak, ready made to our hand; he was trained to the business by a lucky coincidence; he was by this accident, the only man who could be found to unite experience with the other qualities required, and all of which he also possessed. Nor had he any of the drawbacks which might be supposed to prevent his appointment. He had never mixed in politics at all; his connections were ministerial; he was known to the Lord Chancellor, and much esteemed by him; he had, indeed, been promoted by his lordship to the place of Commissioner of Bankrupt; to the members of the committee he was wholly unknown except by his co-operation; none of us had ever heard his name mentioned until the member for Berks informed us of the similarity of his pursuits. Thus, then, fortune seemed to present a person eminently fitted for the service of the public, and it might have been supposed that Lord Sidmouth would eagerly avail himself of the opportunity to appoint at least one commissioner whom all men would allow to be well chosen. What were the grounds of his rejection, I am yet to learn. Whether he had incurred the guilt of drawing forth my warm commendations, solely by his own merits; or that abounding in all other requisites, he had no friend at court; or that his inquisitorial habits might give alarm to many favoured personages; or that his claims stood in the way of illustrious birth united to obscure merit; or that the patronage of the Home Department, was at all hazards to be defended against every inroad of desert as well as of Parliamentary recommendation—all we know is the fact, that neither Mr. Parry nor Mr. Koe are in the commission.

Among the honorary commissioners, we had been led to hope that Lord Lansdowne and the Bishop of London would appear. It is not easy to find two individuals more admirably qualified for the office, by the union of inflexible integrity with conciliatory temper, and of acute understanding with habits of application to affairs. But I own that in my eyes those distinguished persons were still further recommended by their avowed disposition in favour of the proposed inquiry; and I am therefore the more disheartened, when I find their places supplied by two right reverend prelates, one of whom displayed his irreconcilable hostility to the bill, by even voting against its commitment; and the other, his disinclination towards it, by retiring before the division, in which the bench of bishops took so active a share.* These are the only peers whose names I find in the list. Neither Lord Rosslyn, who brought forward the question with such signal ability, nor Lord Holland, nor Lord Carnarvon, who so powerfully supported him, are included.†

But I feel myself compelled, however irksome the task, to take notice of another omission. No members of the Education Committee

* The Bishops of Peterborough and St. Asaph.

† It is singularly unfortunate, that neither the speech of Lord Rosslyn, so replete with important information, as well as sound and enlightened views, on national education, nor that of Lord Holland, worthy of his illustrious kinsman, were reported.

are stationed at the board, to superintend the execution of their own measure; to keep watch for the public, stimulating the doubtful zeal of some, and checking the declared hostility of others; in a word to give the country a substantial security, that the abuses so loudly complained of shall in good earnest be investigated, and that the commission shall not be changed from an unsparing inquisition into a thicker cloak than that under which the poor have already been despoiled. It might have been expected that either Mr. Babington or myself, who had taken the principal part in the labours of the committee, would have been placed on the watch for these purposes. Of Mr. Babington's claims to the office, every one who knows him will admit that I need say nothing. Unfortunately he has lately by his retirement from public life, added one qualification, which all who have marked the honesty and usefulness of his parliamentary conduct will allow, that the country has cause to lament. After titles to notice, so much higher than any I can bring forward, had been disregarded, I could hardly feel surprised at my own offer of service being rejected, with silent contempt, by the eminent head of the Home department. I was induced to tender myself, by the strong representations of my fellow labourers in the committee. As the office conferred neither emolument, nor patronage, nor power; as it only gave the privilege of hard labour, of which the habits of my life and my zeal for the cause, made it very clear that I should cheerfully take advantage; I imagined that the most implacable species of malice—the spite of peculators trembling for their unjust gains—could hardly impute any selfish views to the application: I therefore openly stated in my place that I was anxious to be an honorary member of the commission. I added, that even if my temporary retirement from Parliament were deemed an indispensable condition of the appointment, I still desired to have the option upon these terms; being of opinion that I might render more valuable service to the country, by devoting to the proposed inquiry the whole time which I could spare from professional avocations. But I do not find that great leisure is thought necessary for the business of the board. The Speaker is at the head of it; and Sir W. Scott is another of its members. Than the former no man can be a more fit president; but I am not quite disposed to look for very active investigation from the right honourable member for Oxford. He is understood to be decidedly hostile to the bill. His constituents are known to be in general, the warmest enemies of the whole inquiry. That he and Mr. Yorke are named instead of Mr. Babington and myself, I trust I may be permitted to regret with the most perfect respect for two gentlemen whose fair difference of opinion, widely as it separates us, I entirely honour.

That party considerations dictated this decision, I feel unwilling to believe. In the case of Mr. Babington they could have no weight. In my own I will venture to say they would be exceedingly misplaced; for I appeal with confidence to every member of the committee, and to every person in government with whom I have had the honour of communicating, to defend me from the suspicion of having in any

one instance shown myself influenced by political feelings during the course of the inquiry. So determined was I to avoid everything which might lead to such imputations, that I interfered at the Westmoreland election to prevent any allusion from being made to the case of St. Bees' school, and uniformly refused access to the evidence touching that extraordinary affair to persons who might use it for the purposes of the local contest. It has been suggested that I am omitted because the ministers were apprehensive of my carrying the inquiry further than they wished it to go. Certainly I should have felt no desire to push it beyond the just limits. I should have only taken care that every abuse was searched to the very bottom, whoever might be engaged in it; or might profit by it. One step short of this I should not have consented to stop; further, there was no occasion to go.

It is necessary to add a remark or two upon the choice of the secretary. That important officer is directed by the act to be named by the commissioners themselves. The reason is obvious; he ought to be a person possessing their confidence; known to them; selected by them. The law was purposely so framed, and the terms of it explicitly show the intent of the legislature. The Secretary of State, however, is understood to have desired the stipendiary commissioners immediately after their nomination, and before the seal was affixed, to reserve themselves upon the appointment of a secretary. It is not to be doubted, that this suggestion was meant as a notice that the Home Department would recommend a proper person. Accordingly I am informed that Mr. Parry, the omission of whose name at the Board had created considerable discussion, has since received intimation that an application by him for the office would be favourably received. If Lord Sidmouth recommends him, it will be a deviation from the Act of Parliament,* useful no doubt to the public, but only rendered so by his lordship having previously left him out of his proper place at the board. Had he been appointed a commissioner, the minister would have only exercised the patronage vested in him by law; an able servant would have been secured in the department that most required him; and the discretion vested by the act in the board would have been kept sacred from ministerial encroachment.†

* The words are (Sect. 4), "The said commissioners are hereby authorized to appoint and employ such secretary *as they shall think meet*, and to administer to the said secretary an oath for his true and faithful demeanour in all things relating to the due performance of *any trust* respecting the execution of this act, *reposed in him by the said commissioners.*"

† It is remarkable that the Police Committee have complained, in their *Third Report*, of the same disposition in the Home Department to grasp at patronage not vested in it by law. "This breach of an act of Parliament (says the Report) on the part of the Secretary of State, has produced the result which might have been anticipated. One of the persons so appointed by Lord Sidmouth, was a worthless, abandoned character, a Jew bail, who was imprisoned in the King's Bench, and not being able to perform his duty, was turned out of his situation; he is described by the chief clerk as a man who hired himself out as a fraudulent bail, and was never known at the office till he came to be sworn in. Your committee beg leave to observe, that this interference of the Secretary of State is not warranted by the

I have now finished the most painful part of these observations; painful, because I have been compelled to criticise the selection of persons against whose general characters and respectability I have never heard a suspicion whispered, and to express a disapprobation of the choice, founded upon an invidious comparison of their deserts with those of other men. Let it not, however, be supposed that I expect no good to result from their labours; still less do I impute to them any backwardness to discharge the duties which they have sworn to perform. It is the inferior energy of some that I lament. It is the unfortunate prejudices of others which I dread, against which I feel anxious that they themselves should be warned, and of which a jealous public ought thus early to be apprised. Even constituted as it is, and with powers so defective, this board may render service to the state: but he is guilty of no failure in courtesy towards its members who betrays a constitutional desire that their proceedings should attract the watchful eye of the community at large.

Of the ministers who first mutilated the act, and then entrusted the execution of it to its enemies rather than its authors or supporters, no man can long hesitate what opinion he should form. Their conduct can only be accounted for upon the supposition that they do not wish to see a zealous and unsparing investigation of charitable abuses. That they should favour neglect or peculation for its own sake, is inconceivable; but they may be deterred from fearlessly joining in the exposure of it by the clamours of those who are interested in its concealment, or the alarms of men easily disquieted, willing to believe that there is safety in supporting whatever exists, ready to fancy that there is danger wherever there is movement, and to forget that in the neighbourhood of mischief it is perilous to repose. Certain it is, that the present ministers have at all times betrayed a reluctance to reformation of every sort; and that, whether from interest, or weak compliance, or fear of disquieting the alarmists, they have so acted as to afford abuses of all descriptions effectual shelter. Upon the present occasion they have not deviated from their accustomed course; and the interposition of Parliament will be required to force them out of it, as it has frequently done before. The season has happily passed away when the country could be frightened out of a necessary attention to the mismanagement of its affairs; and an opinion is daily gaining ground, that its safety might be secured, instead of endangered, by the steady yet temperate progress of well-considered, timely reformation.

It is devoutly to be hoped, that the clamours, and the still more dangerous intrigues of men directly interested in the continuance of abuse, may not be permitted to influence the House of Commons during the approaching session. If anything has been clearly proved

law which regulates the police, and will no doubt, if persevered in, be attended with the worst effects. Of the four persons nominated by Lord Sidmouth, one declined his appointment, another was turned out of the office, and the remaining two were confirmed in their situations, in defiance of the proper remonstrance of the magistrates upon the subject."

in the foregoing pages, it is the absolute necessity of reviving the Education Committee, and extending its powers to all charities whatever. This measure alone can strengthen the hands of the commissioners, whom all good men must wish to support, whether they approve or blame the selection that has been made. It is no less necessary for pursuing the investigation of the important matters withdrawn from the jurisdiction of the board. An opposition to the renewal of that committee can only originate in a determined resolution to screen delinquents, to perpetuate neglect and malversation. I trust I may be permitted to affirm, without incurring the charge of presumption, that never did any committee better deserve the confidence of Parliament and of the country, whether we regard the diligence or the impartiality with which it performed its duty. Gratitude to my colleagues, as well as justice to the public, requires from me this acknowledgment.

It is true we had enemies, who from the first regarded our proceedings with a jealous eye; and whose numbers as well as animosity were increased by the progress of our inquiries. With those who openly met us we had no reason to dread the result of a conflict; but our most implacable adversaries chose a more formidable manner of attack. They hated us for one thing, and arraigned us for another; or, concealing themselves and their grounds of aversion, they worked upon the fears of others, and opposed us by deputy. Men who had no possessions of their own, affected a tender regard for the secrecy of title-deeds, while they feared only the disclosure of conveyances, that would oblige them to surrender the property of the poor. Many who cared but little for the church, and had too much sense to suppose it could be endangered by the restitution of charitable funds to their proper objects, worked upon the apprehensions of their weaker brethren, and made them cry out, that nothing was sacred from our inquisition; while certain secular abuses, cherished for convenience, rather than consecrated by time, were the only objects of their own veneration. Above all, advantage was taken of the romantic attachment which English gentlemen feel towards the academic scenes of their early life; and the generous natures of persons who had honoured those retreats of learning by their acquirements, or at the worst, only made them the abodes of harmless indolence, were enlisted in the defence of practices from which they would have revolted, had they not suffered themselves to be persuaded that our object was an illiberal, unlettered, Gothic invasion of all classic ground.

Accordingly, we were severely reprov'd for pushing our inquiries into establishments, destined, it was said, for the education of the upper classes, while our instructions confined us to schools for the lower orders. Unfortunately, we no sooner looked into any of those institutions, than we found that this objection to our jurisdiction rested upon the very abuses which we were investigating, and not upon the real nature of the foundations. For as often as we examined any establishment, the production of the charter or statutes proved that it was originally destined for the education of the poor—*“One free school for the instructing, teaching, maintenance, and Education*

of POOR CHILDREN and Scholars,"* says the charter of the "Hospital and Free Grammar-School in the Charter-House." "PAUPERES et INDIGENTES scholares," say the statutes of Winchester College.† "Unum Collegium perpetuum PAUPERUM ET INDIGENTIUM scholarium Cantabrigiæ, et quoddam aliud collegium perpetuum ALIORUM PAUPERUM ET INDIGENTIUM scholarium Etoniæ," say the statutes which founded King's College Cambridge, and Eton College;‡ and they further require the scholars to take a solemn oath, that they have not five marks (£3, 6s.) a-year to spend. The Westminster statutes expressly prohibit any boy being elected on the foundation, "who has, or at his father's death will inherit, a patrimony of above ten pounds."§ The same poverty is the qualification required by the statutes of Trinity College, Cambridge: the scholars are there called "PAUPERES," and in choosing them, where other merits are equal, the preference is ordered to be given "INOPIÆ."|| In choosing the fellows of St. John's College, a preference is prescribed in favour of the most deserving, "et inter hos, illis qui INDIGENTIORES fuerint;" for scholars, the "INOPIES" are directed to be preferred, and an oath of poverty, similar to that of Eton and Winchester, is solemnly taken.¶ There is no doubt that some other institutions, as St. Paul's School, and St. Saviour's in Southwark, were intended for the rich; the former by manifest implication was founded for them only; the latter, by the express terms of the foundation, was meant for rich and poor indifferently;** but in the original statutes of the great schools and colleges, as far as we examined them, there was to be found no provision except for the poor. Nor are the committee the first persons who have regarded those magnificent endowments in this light. Lord Coke, and the other judges of England, so considered the two Universities in general; for in his report of the decision touching a charity-school in a very well known case, he says, that they all held it applied to Oxford and Cambridge; he mentions those foundations as works of charity, speaks of their members as "*poor scholars*," and, in reference to the misapplication of their funds, quotes the text, "*panis egen-tium vita pauperum; et qui defraudat eos homo sanguinis est.*"†† The application of such expressions to those rich endowments, has, indeed, given offence to many. They think it hard that they should be obliged to take the name with the estate; probably because the property came not by inheritance, or by any other lawful title, and because the application is very inconsistent with the possession.

I presume, however, that I have said enough to justify the committee for venturing to consider those great establishments as within its jurisdiction. But situated as they are in the eyes of all the world, administered by highly gifted personages, superintended by visitors of exalted station, it might be deemed superfluous to exercise, with respect

* 1 Report, 1816, p. 128.

† Report, 1818.

‡ Vid. Stat. 1, entitled "*Mens et institutum fundatoris.*" Report, 1816.

§ Report, 1816, p. 199.

|| Cap. 1, and 13. Report, 1818.

¶ Cap. 12, 15, 16. Report, 1818.

** Report, 1816, 224, 170.

†† 8 Report, 130. Thetford School Case.

to them, the inquisitorial power which our instructions gave us. Now, whether beneficially or not, I have no right to determine, but certainly the fact is, that great deviations have been made from the original foundation in all those venerable establishments. For the particulars I must refer to the evidence.* I shall here only mention a few things relating to Winchester College, which may serve to show that such endowments are not less liable to perversion than more obscure charities. The statutes, as has already been observed, require, in the most express terms, that only "*the poor and indigent*" shall be admitted upon the foundation. They are, in fact, all children of persons in easy circumstances; many of opulent parents. The boys, when they attain the age of fifteen, solemnly swear that they have not £3, 6s. a-year to spend; yet as a practical commentary on this oath, they pay ten guineas a-year to the masters; and the average of their other expenses exceeds fifty. It is ordered that if any boy comes into the possession of property to the amount of £5 a-year, he shall be expelled; and this is construed £66 : 13 : 4, regard being had to the diminished value of money, although the warden, fellows, and scholars all swear to observe the statutes, "*according to their plain, literal, and grammatical sense and understanding.*" It is strictly enjoined that no boy shall be admitted above twelve years of age. This is wholly disregarded. The fellowships are augmented in revenue by a liberal interpretation of the terms describing their money payments; while the strictest construction is adopted as to the payments to scholars, including even the founder's kin, the peculiar objects of his bounty. Thus, too, while the latter are refused the convenience of knives, forks, spoons, plates, &c., on the ground that such articles of furniture were unknown in the time of William of Wykham, the fellows are allowed those accommodations, although the fellowships were founded at the same early period. The revenues are between £13,000 and \$14,000 a-year; the yearly expense of the foundation scholars, as now borne by their parents, is between £60 and £70; so that there cannot be any fair reason for not defraying the whole of this out of the revenues, as the founder obviously intended; and thus restoring the school to its original state. Nor would it be a deviation from his plan by any means so wide as many which have been adopted, were the number of seventy scholars enlarged, which the opulence of the establishment would render very easy. The fellowships would still be lucrative, if reduced to the ordinary value of those at Oxford and Cambridge, and they are tenable with church preferment. The infractions of the original statutes are sought to be justified by the connivance of successive visitors,

* The Report of 1818 contains copies of the statutes of Eton, and King's College, Trinity, and St. John's Cambridge, and a part of the foundation of Christ Church, Oxford. The singular accuracy with which they are printed does great credit to the industry and skill of Mr. Ellis of the British Museum, who has been employed for some months in superintending the press. This part of the Report will in a few weeks be in circulation; the part about to appear immediately contains important extracts from the Winton Statutes. The Report of 1816 contains the foundations of Westminster, Charter-House, St. Paul's, and others.

and it is alleged that they have even authorized them by positive orders (*injunctions*.) But the statutes appointing the visitor, expressly prohibit him from altering them in any manner of way, directly or indirectly, and declare all acts in contravention of them absolutely null.* I must add, that notwithstanding the disregard shown to some statutes and some oaths, there was a strong disposition manifested in the members of the college to respect those which they imagined bound them to keep their foundation and their concerns secret.

I am very far from taking upon me to decide, that in all those great institutions many deviations from the letter of the original statutes may not have been rendered necessary, and some infractions of their spirit advantageous by the change of circumstances. But let it be remembered that the committee only investigated, leaving others to act upon the result of the inquiry. We contend for nothing beyond the propriety of having the whole matter examined, and the real state of things exposed to Parliament, and the country. They who object to our proceedings, on the other hand, begin by assuming either that all is right, or that the subject is too sacred to be touched; and they oppose every attempt to let in the light upon what is passing within their precincts, as if the hand of destruction were lifted against establishments, while in truth we are only for subjecting them to the public eye. Nevertheless, in all such matters, it is consistent with a wise policy to respect even the prejudices of worthy men; and where voluntary improvement in any institution may reasonably be expected, a short delay is well bestowed, to attain the advantages of a reform at once safe and durable. Acting upon this principle, the committee hardly touched the universities, leaving to the distinguished individuals intrusted with their concerns the task of pursuing the general suggestions of the report, and of adopting such measures as their more intimate knowledge of the details might point out.

It is natural indeed, even at this early stage of the inquiry, to carry forward our views to the ultimate result, and to ask what measures may arise out of it. For the present I consider that it would be premature to enter minutely into this subject; but some consequences likely to follow from the proceedings in question appear to deserve attention.

In the *first* place, if they only lead to an accurate knowledge of all the charitable funds in the kingdom, without detecting a single abuse, we shall owe to them very valuable information, which has never yet been obtained, notwithstanding frequent attempts for that purpose by different legislative provisions. The inaccuracy of the former returns may be perceived at once, by looking at the abstract of school charities, which Mr. Rickman was kind enough to make from the returns under Mr. Gilbert's act.† To take only two examples—In the East Riding of Yorkshire, 73 places are said to possess 67 charitable donations for schools, and their united revenue is stated at £880; whereas we now have ascertained that one school alone, that of Pocklington,

* Report, 1818.

† Report, 1816, p. 169.

has a revenue of about £900 a-year.* In Middlesex the whole revenue is returned under £5000, in 151 donations possessed by 64 places: but the revenues of three schools, the Charter-House, Christ's Hospital, and St. Paul's School, are proved to exceed £70,000 a-year.†

Secondly. It must be of the greatest importance to investigate all the instances of mismanagement and abuse in charities, although nothing should be done, except to make them public in all their details by a high authority. When this publicity is given to them, a great step is made toward their correction. Where the evil arises from error of judgment, discussion may rectify it, as we frequently have found in the committee, when, examining subscription charities administered on a bad principle, we convinced their patrons of the error, and induced them to amend their plan. Where neglect or breach of trust is committed, the exposure is likely to check it; nay the knowledge that an inquiry is approaching has in many instances already had this effect. Where further steps become necessary, the interposition of the tribunals now constituted for such superintendence, the visitors and the courts of equity, must be ensured by the attention excited, and facilitated by the information obtained. And if, as is too probable, this remedy should be found inefficacious, both in respect of economy and despatch, the surest foundation is laid upon which new legislative measures can be grounded. It may therefore fairly be assumed that the inquiry will end, if rightly conducted, in throwing complete light on the state of charities, and in correcting all the abuses to which they are now liable. The estate of the poor will be, as it were, accurately surveyed, and restored to its rightful owners; or rather rescued from the hands which have no title to hold it, and placed at the disposal of the legislature, the supreme power in the state, to be managed in the way most beneficial to those for whose use it was destined. If it were merely given to those portions of the poor who are literally pointed out by the original destination, and bestowed strictly in the manner described, a great benefit would be gained, and, among other advantages, this would result, that charitable persons, confiding in the secure application of their benefactions, might be encouraged to new acts of liberality. But we may reasonably expect a further improvement to follow, from attending to the great changes in the circumstances of the times, and in the revenues of most charities. The will of the donor, which ought to be closely pursued, may often be better complied with, by a deviation from the letter of his directions—an alteration which no man can doubt that he would have made himself, had he lived to the present day. Thus the founder of Hemsworth Hospital, in Yorkshire, when he appointed it for the reception of twenty poor persons above sixty years of age, appears to have estimated its revenues, as not likely to exceed £70 a-year: they are now more than £2000. Who can believe that he meant to convert so many paupers, at a certain period of life, into wealthy annuitants? Or is it probable that the revenues of a school, in Northumberland, ex-

* Report, 1818.

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† Report, 1816.

clusively appropriated by the foundation to educate the children of a small chapelry, would have been so limited, had the donor foreseen their increase to such a sum as can only be expended, by attiring the boys in cloth of gold, and giving them *Editiones Principes* to read? Or is there a doubt, that the founders of the Leeds' Grammar School, had they foreseen the increase of its revenues, as well as of the commercial population of the town, would have gladly permitted arithmetic and the modern languages to be taught, with Latin and Greek, out of funds greater than can now be spent on a learned education?* Or can it be imagined that King Edward the Sixth would have strictly ordered the whole revenues of the Birmingham Charity to be divided between the two masters, had he known that they would amount to £3000 or £4000 a-year? Cases are not wanting of charities which would be highly detrimental to the community, were the will of the donors strictly pursued. Thus large funds were raised by voluntary contribution to endow an hospital for the smallpox inoculation. Recent discoveries have proved that this practice extends the ravages of the disease. Could any of the original subscribers, were he alive, blame the application of this institution to the vaccine method? The Foundling Hospital has a revenue of £10,000 a-year, which will, in a few years, be increased three or fourfold, all intended originally for the maintenance of children "cast off, deserted, or exposed by their parents."† Yet such an expenditure of those funds would certainly prove injurious to the community, by encouraging improvident marriages as well as illicit connections, and thus increasing the numbers of the poor. No one, therefore, can blame the total change of the plan which for the last sixty years has been made, with whatever view, by adopting the rule to admit no child whose mother does not appear to be examined.‡ The founder of the Bedford Charity certainly never expected that the thirteen acres in Holborn parish, with which he endowed it, would let for £7000 or £8000 a-year, and be the means of attracting paupers from every quarter to injure the town which he especially designed to favour. In all cases of either description, both where much of the benefit plainly intended to be conferred is lost, and where positive injury is occasioned, by closely adhering to the donor's directions, it seems the duty of the legislature to supply his place, and to make such alterations as he might be presumed to sanction were he alive, in like manner as the Court of Chancery endeavours to fulfil his intentions, where his orders are imperfect, or where he has omitted altogether to make a provision.

The course of proceeding which the legislature ought to pursue in dealing with the estates of the poor, is a subject of peculiar delicacy, and closely connected with the great question of the poor-laws. It is chiefly in this connection that I have from the beginning been induced to regard both the subject of charities and of national education. You

* See Attorney-General v. Whitely, 10 Ves. jun. 24, where it is held, "that the words *grammar school* exclude all learning but the learned languages."

† Vide Charter 1739. Report, 1816, p. 215.

‡ Report, 1816, p. 244.

are aware that my intention is to submit certain propositions to Parliament upon the poor-laws during the ensuing session, and I shall not here anticipate the discussion which may then be expected to take place. But a few observations may properly find a place in this letter, respecting the connection between the general question and permanent charitable funds. The remarks then, with which I am about to conclude, relate to the principles which ought to regulate the conduct of the legislature in dealing with charities, and which should guide us in forming our opinion upon the relief likely to be felt by the country from the due application of funds destined to assist the poor.

I take it to be a principle which will admit of no contradiction, that the existence of any permanent fund for the support of the poor—the appropriation of any revenue, however raised, which must peremptorily be expended in maintaining such as have no other means of subsistence—has, upon the whole, a direct tendency to increase their numbers. It produces this effect in two ways—by discouraging industry, foresight, economy, the great preventives of poverty—and by encouraging improvident marriages, the great source of paupers; nor is the former operation more certain than the latter. It is equally clear that this increase will always exceed the proportion which the revenues in question can maintain.* To the class of funds directly productive of pauperism belong all revenues of alms-houses, hospitals, and schools where children are supported as well as educated; all yearly sums to be given away to mendicants or poor families; regular donations of religious houses in Catholic countries; the portion of the tithes in this country which went to maintain the poor before the statutory provision was made; and finally, and above all, that provision itself.† But charitable funds will prove harmless—and may be moreover beneficial—exactly in proportion as their application is limited to combinations of circumstances out of the ordinary course of calculation, and not likely to be taken into account by the labouring classes in the estimate which they form of their future means of gaining a livelihood. Thus they may safely be appropriated to the support of persons disabled from working by accident or incurable malady, as the blind and the maimed; and we may even extend the rule to hospitals generally, for the cure of diseases; nor can orphan hospitals be excepted, upon the whole; for although certainly the dread of leaving a family in want is one check to improvident marriages, yet the loss of both parents is not an event likely to be contemplated. In like manner, although the existence of a certain provision for old age, independent of individual saving comes within the description of the mischief, it is nevertheless far less detrimental than the existence of

* “*Languescet industria, intendetur socordia, si nullus ex se metus aut spes, et securi omnes aliena subsidia expectabunt, sibi ignavi, nobis graves.*”—TACIT.

† The poor rates come clearly within this description as now raised and applied; for though they do not exist previously to the demand on the part of the persons claiming relief, the mode of calling them into existence, and the right to do so, are known, and that has the same effect.

an equal fund for maintaining young persons, and more especially for supporting children. Keeping these remarks in our view, let us add to them the consideration, that as the poor laws have been administered, the character of the labouring classes have suffered a material injury, from which it ought by all means to be restored, and we shall come to the conclusion, that the application of charitable funds to purposes of education merely, will be the best means of expending them on a large scale, and that next to this, such donations are to be preferred as directly encourage independence, for example, a provision for the old age of persons who never received alms in any shape; and for defraying the first cost of erecting saving banks. The employment of these resources in helping industry by the supply of tools is a more doubtful application of them, but far more harmless than the methods generally in use. Perhaps, after the uses now mentioned, no expenditure of eleemosynary revenues can be devised more safe than reserving them rigorously for periods of extraordinary distress, and then bestowing them upon persons above the lowest classes, so as to prevent the ruin of householders.

I am very far, however, from asserting that any such strict limitation of the charitable funds already existing ought to be attempted. I only state the principle upon which the legislature should proceed, wherever it is justified in interfering. What circumstances may authorize that interference, cannot be, with any advantage to the subject, described in general terms. But that no rights are in reality infringed by taking a fund destined to support the poor in a way likely to increase their numbers, and using it so as to perform some act of charity without increasing the numbers of charitable objects, seems abundantly evident. No man can be supposed to have desired the existence of paupers; every donor assumed that, independently of his bounty, there were such needy persons in being, and he intended to relieve them. Could he have foreseen that an alteration in the form of his gift, must reduce their numbers, he would have adopted it. In like manner, the poor are not, with reference to this point, an existing body of persons, like the church or any other corporation, who have rights of property. They form a class into which no man enters voluntarily, and whatever restricts their numbers by diminishing poverty, benefits the community. So that no violation of property would be committed by using any fund given to the poor, in a manner different from its original destination, provided the result were infallibly to lessen their numbers, and still to employ it in works of charity. We both accurately and conveniently speak of the poor as a body having rights, when we complain of those who have misapplied their property by converting it to their own use. But the class of paupers cannot with any correctness of speech be said to be defrauded by an act which keeps others from entering into that class. This injury can only be done to persons who were manifestly never in the donor's view, persons voluntarily making themselves paupers, to take advantage of the gift.

But let it not be imagined that the general recovery of charitable

funds from the hands by which they are mismanaged, would afford no direct relief to the country. Even if applied rigorously, according to the principles which I have stated, they would produce an almost immediate diminution in the numbers of the poor, and would support many who at present are left to depend upon parochial relief. The effects of a course of treatment tending to raise the character of the lowest classes, are very generally underrated. The experiments which have been made in Switzerland, and of which an account will be found in my evidence before the committee, sufficiently show how much may be expected from a system at once rational and benevolent. There is no necessity for carrying it so far as has there been done; but the principles are the same in every degree to which they may be adopted. We have also uniformly found in the committee, that the improvement of children produces an immediate effect upon the parents who have been brought up in rude and dissolute habits, inspiring them with better sentiments, and gradually meliorating their condition.* If all the proper measures were adopted for thus striking at the root of the evil, it would obviously be much safer than it now is to apply part of the funds already disposable, or which may be regained, to the ordinary purposes of charity; and they might thus afford an important relief to the land-owner during the period that must be consumed in the transition from the present unnatural state of the system, to a more healthful and happy condition.

I must, however, forbear to enter further into this wide field of discussion. Our subject is confined within narrower limits. The point to which the attention of the country should first be directed, is the rescue of charitable funds from mismanagement, and their restoration to the purposes for which they were created. Upon the justice of this course, there can exist no difference of opinion. Upon its expediency as compared with the abandonment of them to thriftless or selfish hands, the decision seems equally clear. What further steps may be advisable, is a question that may be reserved for a later stage of the inquiry. But I should have acted unfairly if I had omitted here to bring forward, though very generally and imperfectly, the principles which, in my humble opinion, should guide us in resolving that question also, because false expectations might have been raised on the one hand, or equally groundless despondence been produced on the other.

I ever am,

Most faithfully yours,

H. BROUGHAM.

TEMPLE, Aug. 20, 1818.

*Report, 1818.

S P E E C H

IN ANSWER TO

MR. PEEL'S CHARGES

AGAINST THE

E D U C A T I O N C O M M I T T E E .

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS,

JUNE 23, 1819.

AFTER the speech of the right honourable gentleman, the House, I feel confident, will extend its indulgence to me. Suddenly called upon, without any the least notice, to defend my individual conduct, and that of my colleagues in the committee, whose confidence I am proud to have enjoyed from the first day that I filled its chair, to the last when I reported its proceedings, I rise under the additional disadvantage of almost every one of its members being absent, to meet, thus unprepared and unsupported, the long premeditated and much laboured harangue of our accuser, surrounded by those who were doubtless well aware of the charge about to be preferred against us. (*Some members here were observed leaving the House.*) And, sir, while I lament the absence of the committee, I cannot but laud the exemplary candour of those who, having been present during the attack, are taking this opportunity of departing, that they may not listen to the defence. They hardly yield in fairness to their honourable leader. He, with a singular delicacy and equal fairness, has selected a moment for his onset, when he thought he should catch the accused unprepared, and so have him convicted without a defence. They, contented with listening to the charges, are leaving us, quite satisfied of my inability to repel them. To repel all and each of them, however, I shall instantly proceed. I delay not a moment to perform this duty, which I owe to others no less than to myself; and in order to meet the peculiar fastidiousness which the right honourable gentle-

man has shown on matters of form—to satisfy that very nice and even morbid sense of order by which he is tormented, and of which he has made so mighty a parade in his solemn lecture upon Parliamentary procedure—I begin by stating that, before I sit down, I shall move to refer the Education Committee's report to a committee of the whole House.

I feel, indeed, my situation to be almost unexampled. Without any kind of notice—anything that could give me a suspicion of such a discussion by possibility arising, as that into which I am thus hurried; without reflection or preparation, or one document, or a single note to help my memory of the details, I am called upon to answer a laboured and artificial invective against my conduct and that of my colleagues, from the year 1816 down to the present day. But meet it I must. I well know how I should be treated, were I to withdraw from the conflict. It would be said that the right honourable gentleman's observations were too strong to be faced—that they cut too deep, and went too near the bone—that they were not loose insinuations or vague invectives—that his performance was not composed of schoolboy rant or college declamation—that he, a business-like personage, gave chapter and verse for all he alleged, dealing largely in names and dates; and if his charges were left unanswered, it was only because they were unanswerable. The committee's absence would be counted no reason for delay; I, at least, it would be said, was present, and could require no notice of that which I should at all times be prepared to defend—my past conduct, no matter how arraigned, or how unexpectedly the charges so maturely prepared, so industriously gathered from so many quarters, might have been brought forward against us. Wherefore I enter forthwith upon my defence against that lecture, the produce of the daily toil, the midnight oil, of the right honourable gentleman, aided probably by sundry fellows of colleges, who never crossed the precincts of their Vice-chancellor's peculiar jurisdiction, and certainly distinguished by all that knowledge of the law, and of the customs of Parliament, which might be looked for in those academical authorities.

The right honourable gentleman has charged me with grave offences, which he has visited with what he doubtless considered as a punishment adequate to the gravest of crimes—the weight of his censure—a censure delivered almost as if it had proceeded from the chair; and which, I must say in passing, would have been nearly as forcible, though it probably would have been less solemn, had it fallen from the chair. In circumstances so unprecedented, gentlemen are now most unexpectedly called upon to decide against the committee's reports, and against my conduct and that of my excellent colleagues, and against the conduct of this House, during two successive sessions, both as regards our acts and deeds, and as regards our omissions. But if I do not now satisfy all who hear me, that the committee were right, that I was right, that this House was right, and the right honourable gentleman wrong—if I do not succeed in proving to the heart's content of every one man of common candour and ordinary understand-

ing, that the right honourable gentleman is utterly wrong in all his charges—wrong from the beginning to the end of his laboured oration—if I do not in a few minutes, and by referring to a few plain matters, strip that performance of any claim to credit—if I do not show him to be mistaken in his facts, out in his dates, at fault in his law, ignorant of all Parliamentary precedent and practice, grossly uninformed, perhaps misinformed, upon the whole question which in an evil hour he has undertaken to handle, with no better help than the practical knowledge and discretion of those who have urged *him* on to the assault, while they showed only a vicarious prodigality of their own persons—then I will consent to suffer—what shall I say?—to endure whatever punishment the right honourable gentleman may think fit to inflict upon me and my colleagues—even the weight of his censure—which will assuredly, in his estimation, be fully equal to our demerits, how great soever they may be. But I venture to hope that the House, mercifully regarding my situation while such a judgment is impending, will allow me, ere the awful decree goes forth, to avert, if it be possible, from our devoted heads, a fate so overwhelming.

The bill immediately before the House, and the important question of exempting specially visited charities which my former speech had raised, obtained but a small share of the right honourable gentleman's attention. He was not here for any such purpose as debating that matter. He was hurrying on to his severe attack—that was what he must at all hazards get at—the matter in question before us signified nothing; yet he said just enough on that to show that he completely misapprehended the whole drift of the legal discussion. When he treated the argument respecting special visitors as reasoning from analogy, to be sure he made a sort of apology for not being able to grapple with such points. But then, why did he touch them at all, if he confesses his incapacity to handle them? Would it not have been as well to leave the subject in the hands of those who could comprehend it, such as his truly learned and honourable colleague,* and not in so merciless a fashion show off himself and his ignorance? Besides, his incapacity to follow the legal argument did not make him at all slow to pronounce an unqualified and dictatorial judgment upon it. But all this he speedily despatched, and came to the main business of the day. First of all he charged me with not having brought forward the subject early in the season, when, it seems, he was anxiously waiting for an occasion to deliver himself. But cannot he recollect what it was that prevented me? Is he so entirely ignorant of what passed at the very opening of Parliament? If he be, where shall he find another member in the House who has so completely forgotten it? It seems he must be reminded of these things, and reminded he shall be. At the very beginning of the session, I was prepared to move for the reappointment of the Education Committee. This was well known; my determination to make the motion was no secret. Indeed, no one could have read my printed letter to Sir Samuel Romilly and doubted

* Sir S. Shepherd, Attorney-General.

it. Well, on the second night of the session, and before I had time to give my notice, the member for Liverpool* came down with a notice from his noble friend† who is generally considered as the organ of the government in this House. Whether he be so or no I will not stop to inquire; for on this point also I may differ from the right honourable gentleman; but be that as it may, I and, I believe, the rest of the House, are wont to regard the noble lord as the leading personage on that side. The tendency, the necessary effect; nay I may say the avowed intention of that notice, was to make me postpone my motion. I thought I was the more safe in doing so, as the right honourable gentleman had not then assumed the supreme direction of affairs, and the notice was a statement that the minister of the crown intended immediately to introduce a specific measure which might render my motion unnecessary. The right honourable gentleman knew all this; he knew that the proceedings of the government must have the effect of silencing me, at least until the bill was brought in; and yet he now comes forward to tax me with having refrained from proposing any measure until the end of the session. My only object in desiring the reappointment of the committee was to remedy the defects in the measure of last year. I came openly and fairly forward to complain of those defects. I did not lurk behind. I did not allow the proceedings of 1816, 1817, and 1818, to go unnoticed. I disapproved of the measures brought forward last year. I lamented the course pursued; and I fairly owned my disapprobation. I felt it necessary to back the commissioners, armed with imperfect authority by the ample powers of the committee, because I deemed them crippled by the checks and the defects in the constitution of the board. This was one reason for my moving the reappointment. But the noble lord's measure was announced as an augmentation of the commissioners' powers. Another reason was, that the objects of inquiry had been limited, and a committee was desirable to investigate those cases which the board were precluded from examining. But the noble lord's measure comprehended an extension also of the objects of inquiry. Here, then, was a prospect held out of such a measure as might possibly render the reappointment of the committee wholly unnecessary; but at any rate, until it was seen how the measure would be framed, who could for a moment expect me to persist blindly in moving for the committee? What man in or out of the House but must have perceived that the ministerial notice at once and effectually suspended for the present any further proceedings?

"But," says the right honourable gentleman, "who could have thought that a committee appointed to inquire into the education of the poor in the metropolis would call before them and examine the masters of Eton and Westminster?" The master of Eton school had been, prior to last session, called before the committee. I much doubt—

MR. PEEL.—"I said the master of the Charter-house School."

MR. BROUGHAM.—Well, then, the right honourable gentleman ex-

* Mr. Canning.

† Lord Castlereagh.

presses his surprise that the masters of Westminster and the Charter-house have been examined. Did not he know this from the report of the committee in 1816? Had he not there the evidence of his senses that their examination had been entered upon, which now strikes him with amazement? I in my turn have a right to marvel—to lift up my hands and my eyes in wonder at the conduct of the right honourable member. Is it not food for astonishment to those who, after what they have heard to-night, can wonder at anything, to perceive that the right honourable gentleman, with all the evidence before him of the offences committed in 1816, should have waited until 1819, before he made one single remark on the manner in which the committee overstepped the bounds of its instructions in 1816? The natural time for complaint against the inquiries of 1816, was when the result of these inquiries was laid upon that table by me, and discussed and animadverted upon by others. The right honourable member, it is true, was not then installed in his present academical situation,* and was only looking upwards to the height he has since attained. But the iniquities which had escaped the penetration of expectant zeal, were again overlooked by the circumspection of calm and quiet possession. When others objected to the proceedings of 1816, and among them the member for Liverpool,† who in a fair, manly, candid manner, took the earliest opportunity of expressing his doubts whether the committee had not gone too far, the right honourable gentleman, now all clamorous with astonishment at events three years old, was then dumb, not with amazement, but with indifference, at those same events then recent or actually passing before his face. But in 1817 he was in the House which reappointed the committee; and had he disapproved its former conduct, he might have opposed its renewal, or insisted upon restricting its powers. At any rate, if he deemed that we had, through mistake of our province, exceeded the authority under which we acted, as he says he blames nobody—he only regrets, and laments, and observes—and far be it from him to impute any motive, and so forth, according to approved precedents of skilful vituperation—surely it would have been but fair to warn us against pursuing the course we had been betrayed into by our zeal, which alone he complains of, while acting under the self same commission. But no such thing—still not a whisper from the right honourable gentleman. In 1818, the same profound silence, when, for the third time, the committee was appointed; and afterwards, day after day, for weeks, to the very end of the session, when reports were laid upon the table, and were made the subject of constant discussions; although he was now the delegate of the body which he this day so faithfully represents—a body whose attachment to constitutional freedom, and whose love of free inquiry, and whose hatred of abuse, stand recorded in every page of our history—it seems that he alone of all in, and almost all out, of the House, heard nothing of what was doing in the education committee. But though his ears may have

* Representative of Oxford.

† Mr. Canning.

been closed to everything that was passing around him, surely his more faithful eyes could not have deceived him when the printed reports were put into his hands. Besides, the committee was not a secret one; it was open to all the House; any member might attend it; many in fact did daily frequent it, who were not upon it. The whole proceedings—the very inquiries into schools and universities—were in all men's mouths—they formed the general topic of conversation—the town as well as the college talk. The right honourable gentleman must therefore have heard for years, of what he now inveighs against with all the artless ardour of fresh passion, and stands aghast before, in all the innocence of ingenuous astonishment and sudden dismay! Then, when the dreadful mischief might have been stayed in its course, if not wholly prevented, not a sign was made—not an expression of warning to the victim, any more than of deprecation or menace to the aggressor, escaped him. Now, when it is all at an end, the danger has passed over his head for years, and most people have forgotten everything about it, he comes down straining with wonder, and bursting with indignation. By way of aggravation, too, if his charge was in itself too light, he now urges that one of the instructions to the committee which has presumed to inquire into public schools, was to consider the state of poor children found begging in the streets of the metropolis. Does not he know the history of that clause in our instructions? Has he never heard, what all the House knows, that it formed no part of the original commission under which we acted? Can he be ignorant that it was added some time after the committee was appointed, and added on the motion of Mr. George Rose, and furthermore, that nobody save Mr. George Rose ever paid the smallest attention to it? But whatever might be its origin or its fate, surely the right honourable gentleman must know that it formed no part at all of the committee's instructions in 1817 and 1818, when the horrible inquiries which alarm him were perpetrated. How, then, does it happen that his serenity of mind was never in the least degree ruffled during the year 1816, when the committee, acting under such an instruction, presumed to examine the Charter-House, and Westminster School; but now, when the committee has been reappointed without any such instruction at all, he is utterly astonished at their proceeding in the course which he had seen them pursue quietly and without one gesture of surprise, three years ago, while the hateful clause about beggars' children was in full force? To be sure, it might not, at that early day, have been quite so easy to raise an outcry against the committee, because the foul misrepresentations of its conduct had not then been industriously disseminated, which makes it now somewhat safer to join in the attack. But be the reason what it may, certain it is that until this very evening not a twinkling spark was ever descried of the fiery zeal which has now burst forth for good order, and the foundations of all establishments, and the regularity of all proceedings, and the rights of the subject, and the duty of protecting him from the aggression of committees. All was then serene in the quarter from whence now proceeds a blaze no doubt intended,

probably expected, utterly to consume the committee and all its works; a blaze from which it is very strange, nor can I tell how, except by God's good providence, we have escaped unscathed.

However, as after all, incredible though it may appear to the right honourable gentleman, the fact seems to be, that we have survived the tremendous explosion, "that great and apparent danger," as the Liturgy has it, "wherewith we were encompassed in this place"—it remains for us to pursue our defence as best we may; and I shall next advert to the charge of having packed the committee; than which I never yet heard any more groundless accusation, nor one supported by a more entire contempt of all facts and dates. But first, suppose I had named a larger proportion of my own friends upon the committee, is there no precedent for this selection by the mover? I will just remind the right honourable gentleman of the course taken by some folks when they happen to have the naming of committees—committees, too, in which the complexion of men's general political opinions and party attachments is infinitely more important than in an inquiry concerning the education of the poor. I will take the very last select committee named by the right honourable gentleman's own friends—the Finance Committee. Of twenty-one that composed it, at least twelve were members who always vote with the government; but I believe I might say fourteen: however, suppose them only twelve: four belonged to those whom he calls neutral, and treats as a class of little account—neither one thing nor another—a sort of milk-and-water mixture; so that there remained only five Horatii, as he phrases it, to make a stand for the constitution.

MR. PEEL.—There were but three Horatii.

MR. BROUGHAM.—I am quite aware of that; I was speaking of their character, not of their number; but, indeed, any one might have known the number of the Horatii who had happened to frequent the opera house of late years, even though he might not have had the advantage of an Oxford education, and thus been early imbued with the two first chapters of the Roman History. However, the right honourable gentleman himself only kept to the true number of the Horatii, by misstating the number of neutral members on the Education Committee. If he had been content to adhere to the fact, as I shall presently show from the list just put into my hands unexpectedly by the worthy person at the table,* he must have been compelled either to abandon his jest from the school-book, or to increase the number of the Horatian family. Instead of the three worthy aldermen who have been called by such classical names, and who are broadly asserted to be the only members from the opposite side of the House, how happens it that the right honourable gentleman thought proper to leave out some eight or ten others of the same description? Is Mr. Henry Wrottesley, for example, a member who usually votes with me? Is Mr. Wolfe a member who ever so votes? Is Mr. Charles Grant? Is Mr. Sheldon? Then why did he pass over all

* Mr. Dyson.

these names in order to allege that there were but three ministerial members named? Was the joke so very pleasant,—was the classical allusion so exceedingly relishing, as to be worth purchasing at such a price? But he left out a number of others; and it wont do to say they were added when the inquiry was extended to Scotland. Some were put in long before any such extension was in contemplation. [*Here Mr. Brougham went into the dates of the several appointments, as these appear on the journals of the House, and enlarged upon the construction of the committee, and the party connections of its members.*].—The committee is allowed on all hands to have been selected from every part of the House. The right honourable gentleman himself has admitted that there were members from various sects, and he descanted learnedly upon the different squads and sections. The nomination of aldermen indeed appeared to puzzle him; but it is strange that one who has received so liberal an education, that he seems to think nobody else knows anything, should be unable to explain this phenomenon. Did it never occur to him, that as the committee was originally appointed to examine the state of education in the metropolis, so it was a matter of course, according to the every day's practice of the House, to name the members for London and Westminster? They were therefore named, with the exception of Mr. Alderman Combe, whose health had prevented his attendance for a session or two. But were the interests of learning and the rights of the universities left to the protection of those worthy magistrates? They served well, indeed, giving their patient attendance while the city charities were inquired into—neither keeping out of the way while the matters which they understood best and took most interest in, were discussed—nor invidiously throwing obstacles in the way of the investigation—nor coming out with retrospective censures when the proceedings were at an end. But there were others on the committee, in whose hands the cause of learning seems to me to have been almost as safe as in those of the right honourable gentleman himself, who will suffer no one else to touch a college or a school. What does he think of Sir Samuel Romilly, of Sir James Mackintosh, of Mr. Frederick Douglas, of Mr. William Lamb, of Mr. Wilberforce, of Mr. John Smythe, the member for Cambridge University? And how happens he, in his much meditated lecture of this night, to have overlooked all these names, in order to represent the great establishments of education as left to the protection of three aldermen? But if a sufficient proportion of such members was not named upon the committee, whose fault was that? Did I ever throw the least impediment in the way of increasing its numbers, even when I might think the committee was becoming unwieldy from being too numerous? What gentleman ever asked to be added, whom I did not move for upon the spot? Whose nomination did I ever oppose? Did I not myself propose in the course of the inquiry, from time to time, seven or eight names, beside those I have now mentioned; and all of them ministerial members? I may mention Sir James Graham, when the St. Bees' affair was to be examined, because he was intimately connected with the

Lowther family and estates—the Lord Advocate, Lord Binning, Mr. Hunter Blair, Mr. William Douglas, and Mr. Boswell, when the instruction was added as to Scotland; and all those members took part of course in the other inquiries, as well as during the single half hour devoted to the Scotch part of the subject. If the right honourable gentleman had desired to add any other names, does any one for a moment suppose that it would have been objected to? Can he himself really believe that I should not have been glad to adopt any such proposition? Why did he not come forward with it at the right time? Why not ask to be put on the committee himself? A single word, a hint would have sufficed, as he well knew. He must have known that he and as many of his friends as he might choose, would at once have been added. Then why did he not pursue so obvious a course at a time when he appears to have heard of nothing from day to day but the inroads made upon the universities? It is mighty well for him to complain now of those attacks as something worse than sacrilege, for the purpose of aiding in this House the invidious and ignorant clamours raised out of doors. But where was he all the while the deeds of violence were doing, and before they were consummated? Then was the time to have come down, protesting, and declaring, and imploring. But no—he saw Oxford menaced—Cambridge invaded—Eton insulted—Winchester sacked—and still he made no move. The imminent peril even of his own *alma mater* could not draw a word from her son and representative; he left her with the rest to be defended from the outrages of a revolutionary committee, by the prowess of the worthy and Horatian members for the city.

So much for the construction of the Education committee. It is now fit that we see what was its conduct when its operations commenced. But here I must again complain of the unfair time and manner of the attack. I am left almost alone to defend the committee. As far as argument goes, I perhaps have no great right to complain of this; for it may be said that it is my duty to be master of the subject. But is it nothing to be left without witnesses to my statements of fact? The worst insinuations are flung out, the most unfounded statements are made, respecting what passed in the committee. Is it nothing to stand here deprived of the testimony which every one of my colleagues would have been ready to bear in my favour had they been present, and which all of them would, I well know, have hurried to their places for the purpose of bearing, had they suspected that an attack would have been made, of which no mortal could possibly have dreamt? Nevertheless, without the benefit of such irrefragable evidence, and at a distance from every document and note which can serve to assist my recollection, and without a moment's notice to turn over in my mind the various details over which the right honourable gentleman has been poring, I cannot tell how long, or with what helps, I find myself suddenly dragged into the discussion of all that passed in the committee from its appointment in 1816 to its dissolution at the end of the last Parliament. But I do not in any way shrink from the task. I shall leave no one remark of the right honourable gentleman unan-

swered. I trust to the indulgence of the House in permitting me to follow him thus closely; for it must be evident to all that the office conferred upon me is not of my seeking; and I again put my case upon this issue, that the right honourable gentleman is utterly wrong in every tittle of his accusations, and that I am myself content to have it said I have done nothing, if I shall not succeed in proving him to be wrong in all. But he said, and repeatedly said, that he preferred no charge. Far be it from him to impute any impropriety; for his part, he blamed no one in any respect. He was the last man in the world to make personal allusions. He accuse or attack any body! Not he, indeed—nothing of the kind; and many were the changes he rung on these disclaimers, all through his speech, or rather through a large portion of it; for they were sown thickly among insinuations, and charges, and personalities as thickly sown. Each succeeding accusation was prefaced and concluded by some such denial of all intention to accuse any body of anything; and the speech was wholly made up of invective, save and except the parts devoted to those denials of any design to inveigh. But what signify such special disclaimers in a harangue which, from beginning to end, was one undisguised chain of inculpation? Or whom did he think he had to deal with that was likely to regard the parenthesis only and overlook the substantial members of the discourse among which they were interjected? For my part, I must view all those candid professions as mere surplusage, and pass them over as wholly immaterial to the body of the charges into which they were so lamely and so uselessly introduced.

In this spirit, the right honorable gentleman said he would not affirm that the committee had acted wrong, but he would assert the necessity of watching with great strictness all recommendations coming from such committees, and of scrutinizing all measures grounded upon their advice; in illustration of which position he referred to the clause in the original act giving the commissioners powers to compel disclosures by imprisoning refractory witnesses. Now, a more infelicitous instance of his maxim he could not have given than this; for it does so happen, that the clause which he read with so much pomp and circumstance was no invention of the committee, and originated in no recommendation of theirs, but was copied from another act of Parliament, the handiwork of a ministry to which almost all the right honourable gentleman's friends belonged; and it formed a distinguishing feature of the most remarkable act by far of that administration. I beg leave to refer him to those around him, for a more detailed account of its merits, and shall content myself with reading the words of the statute, in order to show how literally the clause was copied from the one act into the other bill. [*Mr. B. here read the section in question as it stands in the act for appointing Commissioners of Naval Inquiry, 1802.*] This provision, however, brought forward by lord Sidmouth, and supported by all his colleagues,* is now an object of unspeakable alarm to the right honourable gentleman, who shows such a true regard for the

* Messrs. Vansittart, Bragge Bathurst, Lord Castlereagh, &c.

liberty of the subject as is really touching, though not very happily timed; for all this noise is made about a clause which never passed, and yet its rejection was not even in the least degree owing to the right honourable gentleman, greatly as he dreaded such a provision; fatal as he deemed it to all the rights of property; and hostile as he held it to every principle of the constitution; it might have been the law of the land at this day for anything he ever did or said while the Bill of 1818 was in the House, and the dreaded provision under discussion. Till this hour he never opened his mouth upon this subject. Very different indeed was the conduct of the member for Liverpool,* whose manly and consistent demeanour it is impossible not to praise as often as it is mentioned, even at the risk of repeating the same expressions as have been already applied to it; but when a person acts again and again in the same laudable manner, the consequence is, that the example he sets draws forth a reiteration of the same commendations. He objected to the clause from the first, not as coming from the committee, but upon the ground on which he had originally resisted it with great energy and ability, though without success, when Lord Sidmouth, or rather Lord St. Vincent, for the measure was his, introduced it into the Naval Inquiry Bill. He did not lie by until the eleventh hour, or rather until the work was done, and nothing remained but to carp and cavil. He did not keep up his objections, or leave others to urge them, and a year after the measures objected to had prevailed, and done all the mischief they ever could do, come forth with a solemn denunciation of mischievous intentions, which he had done nothing to frustrate or oppose before they were carried into effect. Those parts of the Naval Inquiry Bill which he disapproved, he openly and fairly resisted, and at the time when his opposition might be effectual; and if there were parts of which he had not then expressed his dislike or his doubts, he at least did not now, after the Bill had passed into a law, and the commission which it created had been a year at work, rise up and pronounce a sentence against them.

The grand charge against the committee is their examining into the colleges and public schools. We have been attacked as if we had run a muck indiscriminately at all the seats of learning in the land. The prominent part of this charge is, our having dared to call before us the master and senior fellows of 'St. John's, who are described as having been sent for abruptly to disclose the mysteries of their house, and treated rudely in the examination. Every part of the accusation is unfounded. The facts as they really stand are these:—Pocklington school in Yorkshire had long been the scene of great and most notorious abuse, and the committee were desirous of inquiring into it. It appears that the master of St. John's is the visitor of the school, and that he had recently exercised his office (though for the first time, it may be remarked) by twice sending the senior fellows there to inquire and report. They had but just returned from the second of these missions, and the master himself had been with them. The propriety of at

* Mr. Canning.

once examining these learned and respectable persons themselves, both as to the nature of the endowment, and the result of their own inquiry, is obvious. It was both more fair towards them, and more expedient for the investigation, than to seek for information from less authentic quarters. But there is no pleasing some folks in the mode of proceeding, except perhaps by doing nothing at all. If the principals are called, it is denounced as an outrage upon the heads of houses, who are pathetically described as dragged before an inquisitorial committee; if the schoolmasters or the neighbours alone are summoned, the evidence is decried as drawn from imperfect, or partial, or tainted sources. Well, the master and fellows were examined; but I positively deny that any discourtesy was practised towards them by myself, or by any of the committee, as far as my recollection serves me. In the course of a long examination, in which a number of persons bore a part, it is impossible for me to remember every question put, or remark made, any more than I can be answerable for each interrogatory that appears on the minutes, though I have repeatedly seen myself made responsible for parts of the investigation in which I have never interfered at all, either by bringing forward the case or asking any of the questions. But I repeat, that I have no recollection of any one thing having passed which can be represented as deviating from courtesy towards any witness, either in the substance or in the manner of the examination. Persons who hastily read the evidence, have mistaken for a sifting cross-examination of Dr. Wood, what is in reality only a repetition of questions, made (and acknowledged by himself at the time to be so) for the purpose of enabling him to give a more explicit contradiction to reports, very prevalent, respecting certain fellowships of his college. But I appeal to the members of the committee who assisted at the examination, if any are present, whether he or any other witness had a right to complain of my conduct in the chair. I have accidentally heard of ample testimony having been borne to my demeanour, by a most respectable gentleman, wholly unknown to me, and in politics constantly opposed to me.* A friend of his from the north, having seen the falsehoods so boldly and so industriously propagated respecting me, and being, from his knowledge of my habits, somewhat surprised at finding how violent and rude an inquisitor I had all of a sudden become, not unnaturally asked Mr. Sheldon if it really was so; but he has been much relieved by finding that gentleman express his great astonishment at the imputation, from having been himself present at the investigation, as a member. But I must protest against this novel method of imputing all that is done in the committee, and recorded in its minutes, to the chairman. The right honourable gentleman has acutely and learnedly classified the members of it into various divisions or squads as he terms them. The majority of those who gave their attendance were not my political friends, but his own. Some were of a third party—some had leanings—some were of no

* Mr. Sheldon.

party at all. As soon as a case was entered upon, or a witness called, the members of both sides, or rather of all the five sides, plied him with questions, some more, some less regular and judicious. It was impossible to prevent or control all their observations. Am I, then, to be answerable for the sins, not only of myself and my friends, but of all the rest? Am I chargeable with the irregularities of all the squads—of whatever might be done by this motley committee, this pentagonal body, in the course of a long and animated proceeding?

But to return to the specific accusations. The right honourable gentleman was pleased with even unusual solemnity to attack—I ought perhaps rather to say, reprimand—us for what he termed the disregarding the obligations of the Winchester oath, compelling the fellows to produce the statutes which they had sworn to conceal, and then publishing these arcana to the world. The right honourable gentleman should have learnt the case better before he set to getting up his lecture. If it did not suit him to attend the committee, he should have informed himself, at least, of the elements, the a, b, c, of the controversy, before he ventured to take a part in it—a part, too, evidently intended to be so very prominent. The Winchester statutes were never published at all—never—and purposely, because, on account of the oath, it might be deemed objectionable to publish them, or disclose more of their contents than was absolutely necessary for the investigation. The right honourable gentleman was thinking of the Eton statutes; but then there was no oath at all pleaded in the Eton case—and, indeed, none existed to plead. This might be enough to show the candour, or let it only be called the accuracy, of the right honourable gentleman, and his qualification to join in this discussion with so authoritative an air and tone. It might be a caution to people before they begin lecturing, to learn a little. But the whole accusation about the Winchester oath was equally founded in a gross ignorance of what has really passed, and an entire disregard of the established law of Parliament. Surely the right honourable gentleman has never taken the trouble to read the oath which he gravely charges the committee with forcing the fellows to violate. Had it contained no saving clause, still the committee had an unquestionable right to disregard it, and compel those who had taken it to produce their statutes. No such oath is in law binding, or can stop the course of justice, in the lowest tribunal known in this country. Far less can it be obligatory on persons under examination before the House of Commons. But it happens that there is an exception in the oath, and a pretty large one; and one too, which has been very liberally acted upon by those who took it. They swore not to reveal—“*nisi quâdem necessitate cogente, vel utilitate suadente,*”—and the oath adds, that they were themselves to be the judges of both the necessity and the utility. How have they acted upon this? It appears from their own statements to the committee, that as often as any end whatever was to be served for the college, they produced their statutes with all freedom, and made them as public as the occasion required. They exhibited them in all suits in courts of law—they laid them before

courts of equity—they gave them in the whole, or by piecemeal, to their solicitors and counsel, in discussions before the visitor; and when it was deemed expedient for their interests to have reports of those proceedings published in pamphlets, they allowed large extracts of those most secret and mysterious documents to be printed; and Mr. Williams, the barrister, one of their counsel, and one of their own body, who has taken the oath himself, told the committee that he had, in publishing a report of one case, inserted part of the statutes in it, and not only those sections which had been used at the trial, but other passages, which he printed in a note, for the further illustration of the Winton argument. I have no manner of doubt, that this use of the statutes by my learned friend, comes strictly within the letter of the salvo in the oath; because I am sure the pamphlet, if not required by some necessity, was very likely to prove of great utility. But then, what could be more absurd than to set up such an oath, so much limited by exceptions and so little observed in practice, as a bar to the jurisdiction of the House of Commons? What more ridiculous, than to fancy that it prohibited the production of those statutes, even according to the strict letter, in the course of their lawful investigation? They have not been called for rashly, or peremptorily, or without the fullest deliberation, and the most careful examination of the scruples which might arise from the oath. All that could be urged by those who had taken it, was fully heard from themselves; and after maturely weighing it all, the committee came to the only decision which they could give without at once abandoning the whole rights of the Commons, and overturning everything like the law and the privileges of Parliament. But in the exercise of their discretion, though the right was undeniable, they have limited the exercise of it by the exigency of the occasion, and have refrained from printing the statutes in their minutes. With respect to the Eton statutes, the case was different. There no oath interfered, and they were ordered to be printed, as well as those of Trinity and St. John's; that in case there be in practice any deviation from them, it may be observed, whether they are all such as change of circumstances warrants, or even makes an improvement. But the right honourable gentleman finds out, or somebody tells him of a marginal note in the Museum copy of the Eton book, and which, it seems, has been printed with the rest of the manuscript. Of the existence of that note, I positively assert, I was unaware till I heard it read now. It had entirely escaped me; and I have no hesitation in saying, that I disapprove of its having been printed. But it was reserved for the peculiar spirit and temper in which this controversy has been carried on, to pick out a little typographical oversight in a volume of many hundred pages, and charge it upon the chairman of a committee, who must indeed be endued with omniscience, as well as excessive industry, to prevent all such accidents from happening.

I beg pardon of the House for all the particulars into which I am forced to enter, but I rather apologize for the right honourable gentleman than for myself; I stand far less in need of such indulgence. A very serious and alarming charge follows next—that of prolonging

the operations of the committee after the dissolution; continuing, as it were, the noxious existence of that hated monster, after the period of its fate had arrived. It seems that, marvellous to relate, at the distance of one whole month from the end of the session, a circular is found, signed by a clerk of the House, who had been clerk to the committee, and, yet more prodigious to tell, sent free through the post-office. Now, I give up the whole defence, if this, which is attacked as a dangerous innovation, is not found to be the uniform practice of every committee, in every session, and absolutely necessary to the expediting of the public business;—if what the House is warned against as alarming and strange, and leading no one can say to what consequences, has not been constantly and most notoriously done; from all time down to the present day. Let but one session of Parliament be shown, in which any such inquiries were going on to the end of the sitting, and in which the prorogation prevented the work of digesting and correcting from proceeding, and I am willing to stand convicted of having introduced a new practice—a great improvement in the method of carrying on such inquiries. In fact, the question will not admit of any doubt. Every one knows that, long after the end of each session, the reports and other papers of that session are printed or circulated, and many of them finished. And there is not in this respect the smallest difference between the end of a Parliament and of a session, or between one kind of work upon the papers and another. But for such a convenient irregularity, the Parliamentary business would be suddenly stopped by each prorogation; nothing would be done till next year, and then a mass of matter would be poured at once upon the House, the officers of the House, and the public, which never, by possibility, could be turned to any account, if it ever could be done, besides the necessary suspension of the new business, in order to finish the digesting of the old. The right honourable gentleman, if he had been at all acquainted with the practice of Parliament in the best times, and under the sanction of the highest authorities, could never have brought forward such a charge; and if he was so miserably ill-informed on these matters, and gathered his notions of Parliamentary usage from persons who knew, who could know, nothing whatever about it, what business had he, upon no better foundation than his own ignorance and theirs, to rear up the presumption with which he brought forward his accusations? Take the plan of the right honourable gentleman and his instructions—adopt his new law of Parliament—let the close of each session not only stop short every investigation in which the committees are engaged, but stay all steps toward preparing for the use of the House the results already obtained from inquiry—and the necessary consequence must be, that not a tittle of the matter required for deliberation can be arranged or distributed, until, at length, the next session sees the House overwhelmed with such a mass of papers as must defy all reading, arranging, or understanding. But I had well nigh forgotten the dreadful circumstance, the ground of so much amazement and protestation, that the circular of July was despatched in a cover signed

by Mr. Freeling, and went free from postage; for this extraordinary natural appearance, the right honourable gentleman can by no means account. I wonder, in my turn, that a theory for explaining it should not have presented itself to a person who deems so highly of his own learning. It might have struck him that there was no other means of sending letters post-free, and that the post-office having received instructions to forward the other circulars under covers signed by Mr. Freeling, the same covers were naturally enough used upon this occasion also.

But I am fated, it seems, to answer for another circular letter, written still longer after the dissolution, even in the present session, to the parochial clergy; and that letter is represented by the right honourable gentleman as tending to deceive those to whom it is addressed, into a belief that the Education Committee is still in being, and that the application is made under its authority. Unfortunately for the right honourable gentleman, the letter in question was only resolved upon after the utmost deliberation, and was then worded with very great care to avoid all possibility of misconstruction. I was well aware, when that letter was sent, whatever I might have been before, of the endless variety of malignant insinuation, and foul and wicked misrepresentation to which any man exposed himself, who acted for the benefit of the poor, with disinterested motives, and who, without fear of obloquy, exposed the hidden mysteries of abuse. I slowly and reluctantly determined upon issuing that circular. I had before been obliged, in my official capacity, to give much trouble to the clergy, I mean the resident parish working clergy, the honest and pious men who, for a very moderate recompense, discharge most important and laborious duties, to their own immortal honour, and the unspeakable benefit of their fellow-creatures. Their conduct throughout the whole of this inquiry has been far, very far above my praise; yet still I entreat them to accept so humble a tribute to their great merits, for their honest zeal, their unwearied benevolence, their pious care of the best interests of their flocks, shown forth in their universal anxiety to promote the great objects of the committee—the education of all the poor. I was most unwilling to press harder than was absolutely necessary upon such willing fellow-labourers, and therefore delayed sending the circular in question, which has for its object to obtain the same information as to unendowed schools, as the former letter had procured respecting endowments. The first letter had been despatched at a time when the bill was expected to pass with a clause requiring the commissioners to examine the state of education generally, as well as the abuse of charities; it was therefore principally calculated to obtain such information respecting endowments, as might serve to direct the inquiries of the board. When that clause was, with others, struck out, the returns became the only source from whence the general information respecting the state of public education could be obtained. It was therefore most desirable to supply the defects in these, as far as regarded the unendowed schools. Yet, as a considerable proportion of the returns to the original circular has, through the

praiseworthy zeal of their reverend authors, afforded the information required, I for a considerable time indulged a hope, that a sufficient number might be found upon which to form an estimate of the average for the whole country, and thus to preclude the necessity which I so greatly desired to avoid, of giving the clergy further trouble. With this view, and besides long and repeated consideration of the details by myself, I consulted professional gentlemen skilled in calculation; and it was not until it appeared impossible to trust the averages obtained from the full returns, that I reluctantly had recourse to the circular in question. There are living witnesses, perhaps not very far distant, to the repugnance which I felt to taking this step—not indeed through any apprehension of incurring the right honourable gentleman's displeasure (which never once crossed my mind, and if it had, would have left a very slight impression), but from tenderness towards those most excellent persons upon whom it was to impose a new task. When I resolved upon issuing it, I weighed the terms of it with extreme care, to guard against the very imputation flung out by the right honourable gentleman, of usurping an authority with which I was no longer vested; not that I felt this at all needful, were I to be judged only by those who know me; not that I should, before the commencement of this controversy, have thought such a precaution necessary, even to prevent misconception in the world at large, for I had yet to learn the risks which a man's character runs, for merely employing himself in the disinterested work of befriending the poor; but the circular was written when I was made aware of this danger; and I studied (in vain as it now seems) to guard against misrepresentations, which I foresaw would be attempted, to describe all I did as encroachment and usurpation. In the simplicity of my heart, I imagined I had succeeded. This night has shown me how meanly I estimated the inventive subtlety, and the unconquerable pertinacity, of polemical malice. For they in whose hands the right honourable gentleman is an instrument of aggression (perhaps more accommodating than powerful), have discovered that the language of the letter was that of assumed official authority. It alluded to inquiries going on with respect to public education; and were not such inquiries in progress when I had laid reports respecting them on the table, given notice of a measure to be brought forward, and informed the House that the digest of the returns was preparing, and would be printed from time to time? But could the most defensive understanding of the person least acquainted with Parliamentary proceedings, suppose that a letter was officially written by a chairman of a committee, in which the writer begins with saying that he should consider it as a favour if the person addressed could conveniently give him certain information, and concludes with begging him to date his answer, if he should be kind enough to oblige him with one? Is that the style of official letters—of requisitions and precepts from chairmen of committees? The first circular from myself as chairman had been very differently worded. “I have to require that you will return answers to the following queries.”—And the difference in style was perceivable

by every person who received the second letter; for every one had previously received the first, and the second expressly referred to it. Indeed, with the inconsistency which has marked every step of the adversaries of education, this first circular has also been attacked—it was said to be uncourteous and peremptory—and there was a doubt expressed of the committee's authority to issue it. As for the style, it was less peremptory than the established form of an order for the production of a paper, or attendance of a witness. That form begins, "It is ordered that A. B." &c. The circular began, "I have to require," &c.—As to the right of demanding answers—any doubt of it was bottomed in the grossest ignorance, and the most childish inattention to the shape of the proceeding. The committee had a right by their instructions to send for all persons, papers, and records. They might have summoned the clergy to Westminster to be examined. Was it not a relaxation of this right, to allow them at their own homes to answer the circular queries?—I do not impute all this wretched blundering to the right honourable gentleman. His objections could not have originated within these walls. They must have been gathered from some coarse manufactory abroad. But he should have been far above suffering any designing or bigoted persons from getting possession of him, and persuading him in so great a matter. This good work I trust will not be impeded by what has passed this day, though I doubt not there are some persons out of doors who indulge hopes that it may. I shall, for my part, persevere. I am beset and attacked at every step, as if I was pursuing some object of personal advantage or aggrandisement, and as if the enemies of the cause supposed that a person, giving up his days and nights to such a work, must needs have some bad purpose to serve. But I shall leave it to time and the contempt of the community, to cure men of such absurd prejudices, which I assure you give me no sort of angry feeling, and only move my pity.

The last charge preferred by the right honourable gentleman is of a singular description. It is not for anything which I have either done or left undone in the committee, nor indeed for any substantive part of my conduct at all, either in or out of Parliament; but it seems I have, in my letter to Sir S. Romilly, taken credit for not doing something, which if I had done, I would, in the right honourable gentleman's opinion, have been guilty of a breach of duty as chairman. Perhaps I ought to be sufficiently well pleased to find the gentleman and his instigators reduced to such flimsy accusations as this, which, if well founded, is really no very mighty matter. But it happens to be, like all the rest, quite groundless. I do not exactly recollect the words used by me; I have not of late been so conversant with my own writings, as the right honourable gentleman seems to be; who, I am sorry to see, has thrown away much valuable time upon what I fear he may find an unprofitable study, at the best, but the more especially, if he did not comprehend what he read. I shall, however, take the quotation as given by him—and to what does it amount? Only that, in order to prove how little truth there was in the charge

so often reiterated, from the first day of these discussions to the present, of my having been actuated by party views in the committee, I cited the known fact of my having refused my partisans in the North access to the evidence respecting St. Bees' school? But how could I have granted this access, asks the right honourable gentleman, without betraying my trust as chairman? Why, in various ways. What was there to prevent me from lending my own notes? What to keep me from communicating any private copies I might have of the printed and unpublished evidence? Then, who ever before questioned the right of a chairman to regulate the manner and time of printing and circulating the minutes of a committee? I have known recent instances of notes being used for private purposes by warm friends of the right honourable gentleman, although the chairman of the committee had joined with the speaker in impounding them to prevent publication. They have been published to the injury of every individual, for whose protection the original minutes were impounded. Of such conduct, indeed, I greatly disapprove. For me to have communicated my notes, or to have allowed the publication of the report some weeks sooner, would clearly have been no such impropriety; yet still I deem that it would have been blameable, because it would have been perverting to party purposes an inquiry that should be kept free from all such connection. And therefore it was, that I abstained from it; nay, interposed to prevent it. I did so, because I deemed that it would have been improper; and the right honourable gentleman sagaciously answers, "had you done so, it would have been an impropriety." There I leave him and his ingenious and subtle instructors.

In conclusion, I must apologize for the time which I have been obliged to occupy in the defence of myself and my colleagues. As far as regards our cause, we have much reason to complain of being taken unawares; but the House, too, has been a sufferer, in being compelled to hear a statement not only inadequate to the greatness of the occasion, but necessarily rendered prolix by the suddenness of the demand which has imperiously, though most unexpectedly, called it forth. It is a satisfaction to me, that, how defective soever in other respects, I at least believe it to have been full, and to have honestly met each individual part of the accusation. In casting my eye back upon the large space over which I have travelled, I can descry nothing that I have left untouched. I rather fear I may be blamed for stopping to take notice of some things which merited none. But I deem this the safer side on which to err, as being made aware by experience of the shifts and devices to which malignity has recourse. If I have passed anything—if it should be found, on further reflection, that there is a single point overlooked by me—I beg to be instantly informed of it, and I pledge myself to take the earliest opportunity which the forms or the kind indulgence of the House affords, of supplying the omission. I have not shrunk from the fullest inquiry, in circumstances which gave me a very fair ground for demanding some delay; and I still

court the most unsparing investigation of every part of my conduct in the chair of the committee, and of every single incident that has happened in the course of our whole proceedings.*

* The preservation of this speech is owing to an accident. A gentleman at the bar, who had taken much interest in the progress of the bill, having the intention of editing Duke's work on Charitable Uses, happened to be in the gallery, and took a very full note of the debate; from which and some further notes kept by Mr. Brougham, and from some others which have since been obtained, the speech was corrected for Hansard's Debates, then edited by Mr. Wright; and from that it is now printed, with only the change of the person and tense, and one or two verbal alterations, founded on notes made at the time. The newspapers, for some days before this debate took place, had refrained from reporting Mr. Brougham's speeches, in consequence, as it is said, of some offence given by him to a reporter, in the form of words used in referring to him; and by no means from the course taken by Mr. Brougham, for it appears from the debates (Hansard, vol. xl, 1174), that he took a very decided part in the gentleman's favour, when the question of his committal to Newgate was discussed, strongly and successfully opposing that proceeding. He was a person of great merit and accomplishments, as afterwards appeared. It appears from the debates, that Mr. Sheldon, Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. J. Smith, and other members of the Education Committee, confirmed Mr. Brougham's statements of fact.

INAUGURAL DISCOURSE

ON BEING INSTALLED

LORD RECTOR

OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW.

APRIL 6, 1825.

TO

THE VERY REVEREND THE PRINCIPAL,
THE PROFESSORS, AND THE STUDENTS,

OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW.

I now leave to inscribe this Discourse to you, in token of my great respect. Although the opinions which it sets forth are the result of mature deliberation, yet, as it was written during the business of the Northern Circuit, it will, I fear, as far as regards the composition, not be deemed very fit to appear before the world. Nevertheless, I have yielded a somewhat reluctant assent to the request of many of your number, who were of opinion that its publication would prove beneficial.

H. BROUGHAM, R.

It now becomes me to return my very sincere and respectful thanks for the kindness which has placed me in a chair, filled at former times by so many great men, whose names might well make any comparison formidable to a far more worthy successor.

While I desire you to accept this unexaggerated expression of gratitude, I am anxious to address you rather in the form which I now adopt, than in the more usual one of an unpremeditated discourse. I shall thus at least prove that the remarks, which I deem it my duty to make, are the fruit of mature reflection, and that I am unwilling to discharge an important office in a perfunctory manner.

I feel very sensibly, that if I shall now urge you by general exhortations, to be instant in the pursuit of the learning, which, in all its branches, flourishes under the kindly shelter of these roofs, I may weary you with the unprofitable repetition of a thrice told tale; and if I presume to offer my advice touching the conduct of your studies, I may

seem to trespass upon the province of those venerable persons, under whose care you have the singular happiness to be placed. But I would nevertheless expose myself to either charge, for the sake of joining my voice with theirs, in anxiously entreating you to believe how incomparably the present season is verily and indeed the most precious of your whole lives. It is not the less true, because it has been oftentimes said, that the period of youth is by far the best fitted for the improvement of the mind, and the retirement of a college almost exclusively adapted to much study. At your enviable age, every thing has the lively interest of novelty and freshness; attention is perpetually sharpened by curiosity; and the memory is tenacious of the deep impressions it thus receives, to a degree unknown in after life; while the distracting cares of the world, or its beguiling pleasures, cross not the threshold of these calm retreats; its distant noise and bustle are faintly heard, making the shelter you enjoy more grateful; and the struggles of anxious mortals embarked upon that troublous sea, are viewed from an eminence, the security of which is rendered more sweet by the prospect of the scene below. Yet a little while, and you too will be plunged into those waters of bitterness; and will cast an eye of regret, as now I do, upon the peaceful regions you have quitted for ever. Such is your lot as members of society; but it will be your own fault if you look back on this place with repentance or with shame; and be well assured that, whatever time—ay, every hour—you squander here on unprofitable idling, will then rise up against you, and be paid for by years of bitter but unavailing regrets. Study, then, I beseech you, so to store your minds with the exquisite learning of former ages, that you may always possess within yourselves sources of rational and refined enjoyment, which will enable you to set at naught the grosser pleasures of sense, whereof other men are slaves; and so imbue yourselves with the sound philosophy of later days, forming yourselves to the virtuous habits which are its legitimate offspring, that you may walk unhurt through the trials which await you, and may look down upon the ignorance and error that surround you, not with lofty and supercilious contempt, as the sages of old times, but with the vehement desire of enlightening those who wander in darkness, and who are by so much the more endeared to us by how much they want our assistance.

Assuming the improvement of his own mind and of the lot of his fellow-creatures to be the great end of every man's existence, who is removed above the care of providing for his sustenance, and to be the indispensable duty of every man, as far as his own immediate wants leave him any portion of time unemployed, our attention is naturally directed to the means by which so great and urgent a work may best be performed; and as in the limited time allotted to this discourse, I cannot hope to occupy more than a small portion of so wide a field, I shall confine myself to two subjects, or rather to a few observations upon two subjects, both of them appropriate to this place, but either of them affording ample materials for an entire course of lectures—the study of the Rhetorical Art, by which useful truths are promulgated

with effect, and the purposes to which a proficiency in this art should be made subservient.

It is an extremely common error among young persons, impatient of academical discipline, to turn from the painful study of ancient, and particularly of Attic composition, and solace themselves with works rendered easy by the familiarity of their own tongue. They plausibly contend, that as powerful or captivating diction in a pure English style is, after all, the attainment they are in search of, the study of the best English models affords the shortest road to this point; and even admitting the ancient examples to have been the great fountains from which all eloquence is drawn, they would rather profit, as it were, by the classical labours of their English predecessors, than toil over the same path themselves. In a word, they would treat the perishable results of those labours as the standard, and give themselves no care about the immortal originals. This argument, the thin covering which indolence weaves for herself, would speedily sink all the fine arts into barrenness and insignificance. Why, according to such reasoners, should a sculptor or painter encounter the toil of a journey to Athens or to Rome? Far better work at home, and profit by the labour of those who have resorted to the Vatican and the Parthenon, and founded an English school, adapted to the taste of our own country. Be you assured that the works of the English chisel fall not more short of the wonders of the Acropolis, than the best productions of modern pens fall short of the chaste, finished, nervous, and overwhelming compositions of them that "resistless fulminated over Greece." Be equally sure that, with hardly any exception, the great things of poetry and of eloquence have been done by men who cultivated the mighty exemplars of Athenian genius with daily and with nightly devotion. Among poets there is hardly an exception to this rule, unless may be so deemed Shakspeare, an exception to all rules, and Dante, familiar as a contemporary with the works of Roman art, composed in his mother tongue, having taken, not so much for his guide as for his "master," Virgil, himself almost a translator from the Greeks. But among orators I know of none among the Romans, and scarce any in our own times. Cicero honoured the Greek masters with such singular observance, that he not only repaired to Athens for the sake of finishing his rhetorical education, but afterwards continued to practise the art of declaiming in Greek; and although he afterward fell into a less pure manner through the corrupt blandishments of the Asian taste, yet do we find him ever prone to extol the noble perfections of his first masters, as something placed beyond the reach of all imitation. Nay, at a mature period of his life, he occupied himself in translating the greater orations of the Greeks, which composed almost exclusively his treatise, "*De optimo genere oratoris*;" as if to write a discourse on oratorical perfection, were merely to present the reader with the two immortal speeches upon the Crown. Sometimes we find him imitating, even to a literal version, the beauties of those divine originals—as the beautiful passage of Æschines, in the Timarchus, upon the torments of the guilty, which the Roman orator has

twice made use of, almost word for word; once in the oration for Sextus Roscius, the earliest he delivered, and again in a more mature effort of his genius, the oration against L. Piso.*

I have dwelt the rather upon the authority of M. Tullius, because it enables us at once to answer the question, Whether a study of the Roman orators be not sufficient for refining the taste? If the Greeks were the models of an excellence which the first of Roman orators never attained, although ever aspiring after it,—nay, if so far from being satisfied with his own success, he even in those his masters found something which his ears desiderated—(ita sunt avidæ et capaces; et semper aliquid immensum infinitumque desiderant*)—he either fell short while copying them, or he failed by diverting his worship to the false gods of the Asian school. In the one case, were we to rest satisfied with studying the Roman, we should only be imitating the imperfect copy, instead of the pure original—like him who should endeavour to catch a glimpse of some beauty by her reflection in a glass, that weakened her tints, if it did not distort her features. In the other case, we should not be imitating the same, but some less perfect original, and looking at the wrong beauty;—not her whose chaste and simple attractions commanded the adoration of all Greece, but some garish damsel from Rhodes or Chios, just brilliant and languishing enough to captivate the less pure taste of half civilized Rome.

But there are other reasons too weighty to be passed over, which justify the same decided preference. Not to mention the incomparable beauty and power of the Greek language, the study of which alone affords the means of enriching our own, the compositions of Cicero, exquisite as they are for beauty of diction, often remarkable for ingenious argument and brilliant wit, not seldom excelling in deep pathos, are nevertheless so extremely rhetorical, fashioned by an art so little concealed, and sacrificing the subject to a display of the speaker's powers, admirable as those are, that nothing can be less adapted to the genius of modern elocution, which requires a constant and almost ex-

* Μὴ γὰρ οἶσθε, τὰς τῶν ἀδικημάτων ἀρχὰς ἀπὸ θαυῶν, ἀλλ' οὐχ ἔν' ἀνθρώπων ἀταλγείας γίνεσθαι· μηδὲ τοῖς ἡσθητικῶν, καθάπερ ἐν ταῖς τραγωδίαις, Ποιᾶς ἐλαύνειν καὶ κολάζειν θάσσιν ἡμῖναι· ἀλλ' αἱ προσωπεῖοι τοῦ σώματος οὐδυναί, καὶ τὸ μηδὲν ἱκανὸν ὑγίειναι, ταῦτα πληροὶ τὰ λυστήρια—ταῦτ' εἰς τὴν ἱκαντρονίλστα ἡμβιβάζει—ταῦτά ἐστιν ἐκδοτὴ Πινί—ταῦτα παρακυλεύεται τοῖς νύκτι, κ' τ' λ. —ΛΙΞΙΝ. κατὰ Τιμάρχου.

Nolite enim putare, quemadmodum in fabulis sæpenumero videtis, eos, qui aliquid impie scelerateque commiserint, agitari et perterrerī Furiarum tædis ardentibus. Sua quemque fraus, et suus terror maxime vexat; suum quemque scelus agitat, amentiaque afficit; suæ malæ cogitationes conscientiaque animi terrent. Hæ sunt impiis assidue domesticæque Furia; quæ dies noctesque parentum pœnas a consceleratissimis filiis repetant.—(Pro Sexto Roscio Amerino.)

Nolite enim putare, ut in scena videtis, homines consceleratos impulsu deorum terrori Furiarum tædis ardentibus. Sua quemque fraus, suum facinus—suum scelus—sua audacia, de sanitate ac mente deturbat. Hæ sunt impiorum Furia;—hæ flammæ—hæ faces.—(In Luc. Calp. Pisonem.)

The great improvement in Cicero's taste between the first and the second of these compositions is manifest, and his closer adherence to the original. He introduces the same idea, and in very similar language, in the Treatise, *De Legg. Lib. 1.*

† Orator. c. 29.

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... which
... applies less to
... except the first, all
... (Milone,) hardly
... would bear. Some
... of witnesses, might
... on the merits of
... be spoken in miti-
... of guilt; but,
... the style, both in
... is wholly unfit for the
... of the senate or
... the Greek masters:
... and of man-
... in some degree, the
... the character, to suit the
... is hardly one of the
... that might not be delivered
... while their
... much less inflated and
... masters of the epideictic
... Whence this difference
... Whence
... the Greek orator keeps the
... never speaking for mere
... *ingenii sui nimium*
... a trial of skill, or
... and losing sight of the
... and adorn it; and pours forth
... to tickle the ear, without
... of Cicero, or of him who
... shall we find any
... in which Demos-
... rapidly following strokes,
... as, in the Chersonese,
... *ἡ δὲ κατηγορία ἐστὶν ἡ τοιαύτη*
... *ὅτι καὶ ὁ δῆμος ἐστὶν ὁμοῦ*
... *καὶ ὁ δῆμος ἐστὶν ὁμοῦ*
... a long narrative that suits
... a lengthened series of
... *ἡ δὲ κατηγορία ἐστὶν ἡ τοιαύτη*

... in the remarks on the evidence and cross-
... by my friend Mr. Scar-
... affords an illustration of my
... in all its branches
... of his predecessors in
... of judicial orators, ancient or
... of the classic age.

ἡμίμαι μόναι, ἐν αἷς—οὗτος ἀπῆγγελε τὰ ψευδῆ—ὑμεῖς πιστεύσατε,—οἱ Φωκεῖς ἐπύθοντο—ἐνίδεξαν ἑαυτοὺς—ἀπώλοντο.

But though the more business-like manner of modern debate approaches much nearer the style of the Greek than the Latin compositions, it must be admitted that it falls short of the great originals in the closeness, and, as it were, density of the argument; in the habitual sacrifice of all ornament to use, or rather in the constant union of the two; so that, while a modern orator too frequently has his speech parcelled out into compartments, one devoted to argument, another to declamation, a third to mere ornament, as if he should say,—“Now your reason shall be convinced; now I am going to rouse your passions; and now you shall see how I can amuse your fancy,”—the more vigorous ancient argued in declaiming, and made his very boldest figures subservient to, or rather an integral part of his reasoning. The most figurative and highly wrought passage in all antiquity is the famous oath in Demosthenes; yet, in the most pathetic part of it, and when he seems to have left the furthest behind him the immediate subject of his speech, led away by the prodigious interest of the recollections he has excited; when he is naming the very tombs where the heroes of Marathon lie buried, he instantly, not abruptly, but by a most felicitous and easy transition, returns into the midst of the main argument of his whole defence—that the merits of public servants, not the success of their councils, should be the measure of the public gratitude towards them—a position that runs through the whole speech, and to which he makes the funeral honours bestowed alike on all the heroes, serve as a striking and appropriate support. With the same ease does Virgil manage his celebrated transition in the Georgics; where, in the midst of the Thracian war, and while at an immeasurable distance from agricultural topics, the magician strikes the ground on the field of battle, where helmets are buried, and suddenly raises before us the lonely husbandman, in a remote age, peacefully tilling its soil, and driving his plough among the rusty armour and mouldering remains of the warrior.*

But if a further reason is required for giving the preference to the Greek orators, we may find it in the greater diversity and importance of the subjects upon which their speeches were delivered. Besides the number of admirable orations and of written arguments upon causes merely forensic, we have every subject of public policy, all the great affairs of state, successively forming the topics of discussion. Compare them with Cicero in this particular, and the contrast is striking. His finest oration for matter and diction together is in defence of an individual charged with murder, and there is nothing in the case to give it a public interest, except that the parties were of opposite factions in the state, and the deceased a personal as well as political adversary of the speaker. His most exquisite performance in point of diction, perhaps the most perfect prose composition in the language, was addressed to one man, in palliation of another's having borne

† Georg. I. 493. Scilicet et tempus veniet, cum finibus, illis, &c.

arms against him in a war with a personal rival. Even the Catilinarians, his most splendid declamations, are principally denunciations of a single conspirator; the Philippics, his most brilliant invectives, abuse of a profligate leader; and the Verrine orations, charges against an individual governor. Many, indeed almost all the subjects of his speeches, rise to the rank of what the French term *Causes celebres*; but they seldom rise higher.* Of Demosthenes, on the other hand, we have not only many arguments upon cases strictly private, and relating to pecuniary matters (those generally called the *ἰδιωτικαί*), and

* The cause of this difference between the Greek and Roman orators has been so strikingly described by a learned friend of mine, in the following note upon the above passage, that the celebrity of his name, were I at liberty to mention it, is not required to attract the reader's notice. "In Athens," says he, "an incessant struggle for independence, for power, or for liberty, could not fail to rouse the genius of every citizen—to force the highest talent to the highest station—to animate her councils with a holy zeal—and to afford to her orators all that, according to the profoundest writers of antiquity, is necessary to the sublimest strains of eloquence. 'Magna eloquentia sicut flamma materia alitur, a motibus excitatur, urendo clarescit.' Here were not the holiday contests of men who sought to dazzle by the splendour of their diction, the grace of their delivery, the propriety and richness of their imagery. Her debates were on the most serious business which can agitate men—the preservation of national liberty, honour, independence, and glory. The gifts of genius and the perfection of art shed, indeed, a lustre upon the most vigorous exertions of her orators—but the object of their thunders was to stir the energies of the men of Athens, and to make tyrants tremble, or rivals despair. Rome, on the other hand, mistress of the world, at the time when she was most distinguished by genius and eloquence, owned no superior, hated no rival, dreaded no equal. Nations sought her protection, kings bowed before her majesty, the bosom of her sole dominion was disturbed by no struggle for national power, no alarm of foreign danger. While she maintained the authority of her laws over the civilized earth, and embraced under the flattering name of allies those who could no longer resist her arms, the revolt of a barbarian king, or the contests of bordering nations with each other, prolonged only till she had decided between them, served to amuse her citizens or her senate, without affecting their tranquillity. Her government, though essentially free, was not so popular as the Athenian. The severity of her discipline, and the gravity of her manners, disposed her citizens less to those sudden and powerful emotions which both excited and followed the efforts of the Greek orators. It seems, therefore, reasonable to conclude, that the character of Roman eloquence would be distinguished more by art than by passion, by science than by nature. The divisions and animosities of party, no doubt, would operate, and did operate with their accustomed force. But these are not like the generous flame which animates a whole nation to defend its liberty or its honour. The discussion of a law upon which the national safety could not depend, the question whether this or that general should take the command of an army, whether this or that province should be allotted to a particular minister, whether the petition of a city to be admitted to the privileges of Roman citizens should be granted, or whether some concession should be made to a suppliant king;—these, with the exception of the debates on the Catiline conspiracy, and one or two of the Philippics, form the subjects of a public nature, on which the mighty genius and consummate art of Cicero were bestowed. We are not, therefore, surprised to find that those of his orations, in which he bears the best comparison with his rival Demosthenes, were delivered in the forum in private causes. In some of these may be found examples of perhaps the very highest perfection to which the art can be carried, of clear, acute, convincing argument, of strong natural feeling, and of sudden bursts of passion; always, however, restrained by the predominating influence of a highly cultivated art—an art little concealed."

and many upon interesting subjects, more nearly approaching public questions, as, the speech against Midias, which relates to an assault on the speaker, but excels in spirit and vehemence perhaps all his other efforts; and some which, though personal, involve high considerations of public policy, as that most beautiful and energetic speech against Aristocrates; but we have all his immortal orations upon the state affairs of Greece—the *Περί Στρατιάνου*, embracing the history of a twenty years' administration during the most critical period of Grecian story; and the Philippics, discussing every question of foreign policy; and of the stand to be made by the civilized world against the encroachments of the barbarians. Those speeches were delivered upon subjects the most important and affecting that could be conceived to the whole community; the topics handled in them were of universal application and of perpetual interest. To introduce a general observation the Latin orator must quit the immediate course of his argument; he must for a moment lose sight of the object in view. But the Athenian can hardly hold too lofty a tone, or carry his view too extensively over the map of human affairs, for the vast range of his subject—the fates of the whole commonwealth of Greece, and the stand to be made by free and polished nations against barbario tyrants.

After forming and chastening the taste by a diligent study of those perfect models, it is necessary to acquire correct habits of composition in our own language, first by studying the best writers, and next by translating copiously into it from the Greek. This is by far the best exercise that I am acquainted with for at once attaining a pure English diction, and avoiding the tameness and regularity of modern composition. But the English writers who really unlock the rich sources of the language, are those who flourished from the end of Elizabeth's to the end of Queen Anne's reign; who used a good Saxon dialect with ease, but correctness and perspicuity,—learned in the ancient classics, but only enriching their mother tongue where the Attic could supply its defects,—not overlaying it with a profuse pedantic coinage of foreign words,—well practised in the old rules of composition or rather collocation (*συνθεσις*), which unite natural ease and variety with absolute harmony, and give the author's ideas to develop themselves with the more truth and simplicity when clothed in the ample folds of inversion, or run from the exuberant to the elliptical without ever being either redundant or obscure. Those great wits had no foreknowledge of such times as succeeded their brilliant age, when styles should arise, and for a season prevail over both purity, and nature, and antique recollections—now meretriciously ornamented, more than half French in the phrase, and to mere figures fantastically sacrificing the sense—now heavily and regularly fashioned as if by the plumb and rule, and by the eye rather than the ear, with a needless profusion of ancient words and flexions, to displace those of our own Saxon, instead of temperately supplying its defects. Least of all could those lights of English eloquence have imagined that men should appear amongst us professing to teach composition, and ignorant of the whole of its rules, and incapable of

relishing the beauties, or indeed apprehending the very genius of the language, should treat its peculiar terms of expression and flexion as so many inaccuracies, and practise their pupils in correcting the faulty English of Addison, and training down to the mechanical rhythm of Johnson the lively and inimitable measures of Bolingbroke.

But in exhorting you deeply to meditate on the beauties of our old English authors, the poets, the moralists, and perhaps more than all these the preachers of the Augustan age of English letters, do not imagine that I would pass over their great defects when compared with the renowned standards of severe taste in ancient times. Addison may have been pure and elegant; Dryden airy and nervous; Taylor witty and fanciful; Hooker weighty and various; but none of them united force with beauty—the perfection of matter with the most refined and chastened style; and to one charge all, even the most faultless, are exposed—the offence unknown in ancient times, but the besetting sin of later days—they always overdid—never knowing or feeling when they had done enough. In nothing, not even in beauty of collocation and harmony of rhythm, is the vast superiority of the chaste, vigorous, manly style of the Greek orators and writers more conspicuous than in the abstinent use of their prodigious faculties of expression. A single phrase—sometimes a word—and the work is done—the desired impression is made, as it were, with one stroke, there being nothing superfluous interposed to weaken the blow, or break its fall. The commanding idea is singled out; it is made to stand forward; all auxiliaries are rejected; as the Emperor Napoleon selected one point in the heart of his adversary's strength, and brought all his power to bear upon that, careless of the other points, which he was sure to carry if he won the centre, as sure to have carried in vain if he left the centre unsubdued. Far otherwise do modern writers make their onset; they resemble rather those campaigners who fit out twenty little expeditions at a time, to be a laughing stock if they fail, and useless if they succeed; or if they do attack in the right place, so divide their forces, from the dread of leaving any one point unassailed, that they can make no sensible impression where alone it avails them to be felt. It seems the principle of such authors never to leave any thing unsaid that can be said on any one topic; to run down every idea they start; to let nothing pass; and leave nothing to the reader, but harass him with anticipating everything that could possibly strike his mind. Compare with this effeminate laxity of speech, the manly severity of ancient eloquence; or of him who approached it, by the happy union of natural genius with learned meditation; or of him who so marvellously approached still nearer with only the familiar knowledge of its least perfect ensamples. Mark, I do beseech you, the severe simplicity, the subdued tone of the diction, in the most touching parts of the "old man Eloquent's"* loftiest passages. In the oath, when he comes to the burial place where they repose by whom he is

* Milton applied this phrase to Plato, as well he might; but of the orator it is yet more descriptive.

swearing, if ever a grand epithet were allowable, it is here—yet the only one he applies is ἀγαθός—μὰ τοὺς ἐν Μακεδονίᾳ προκινδυνεύσαντας τῶν προγόνων—καὶ τοὺς ἐν Πλαταιαῖς παταξαμένους—καὶ τοὺς ἐν Σαλαμίνι ναυμαχῆσαντας—καὶ τοὺς ἐπ’ Ἀρτεμισίῳ, καὶ πολλοὺς ἑτέροισι τοὺς ἐν τοῖς δημοσίοις μνήμασι κειμένους ἈΓΑΘΟΤ’ ὦνδρας. When he would compare the effects of the Theban treaty in dispelling the dangers that compassed the state round about, to the swift passing away of a stormy cloud, he satisfies himself with two words, ὥσπερ νέφος—the theme of just admiration to succeeding ages; and when he would paint the sudden approach of overwhelming peril to beset the state, he does it by a stroke the picturesque effect of which has not perhaps been enough noted—likening it to a whirlwind or a winter torrent, ὥσπερ σπηπτός ἢ χειμάρρους. It is worthy of remark, that in by far the first of all Mr. Burke’s orations, the passage which is, I believe, universally allowed to be the most striking, owes its effect to a figure twice introduced in close resemblance to these two great expressions, although certainly not in imitation of either; for the original is to be found in Livy’s description of Fabius’s appearance to Hannibal. Hyder’s vengeance is likened to “a black cloud, that hung for a while on the declivities of the mountains,” and the people who suffered under its devastations, are described as “enveloped in a whirlwind of cavalry.” Whoever reads the whole passage, will, I think, admit that the effect is almost entirely produced by those two strokes; that the amplifications which accompany them, as the “blackening of the horizon”—the “menacing meteor”—the “storm of unusual fire,” rather disarm than augment the terrors of the original *black cloud*; and that the “goaded spears of the drivers,” and “the trampling of pursuing horses,” somewhat abate the fury of the *whirlwind of cavalry*. —Δουλοῦντοί γε μαστιγούμενοι καὶ στρεβλούμενοι, says the Grecian master, to describe the wretched lot of those who had yielded to the wiles of the conqueror, in the vain hope of securing their liberties in safety. Compare this with the choicest of Mr. Burke’s invectives of derision and pity upon the same subject—the sufferings of those who made peace with Regicide France—and acknowledge the mighty effect of relying upon a single stroke to produce a great effect—if you have the master hand to give it. “The king of Prussia has hypothecated in trust to the Regicides his rich and fertile territories on the Rhine, as a pledge of his zeal and affection to the cause of liberty and equality. He has been robbed with unbounded liberty, and with the most levelling equality. The woods are wasted; the country is ravaged; property is confiscated; and the people are put to bear a double yoke, in the exactions of a tyrannical government, and in the contributions of a hostile conscription.” “The Grand Duke of Tuscany, for his early sincerity, for his love of peace, and for his entire confidence in the amity of the assassins of his family, has been complimented with the name of the *wisest Sovereign in Europe*.” This pacific Solomon, or his philosophic cudgelled ministry, cudgelled by English and by French, whose wisdom and philosophy between them have placed Leghorn in the hands of the enemy of the Austrian family, and driven the only profitable commerce of Tuscany from its only port.” Turn now for

refreshment to the Athenian artist—*Καλὴν γ' οἱ παλαιοὶ τῶν ἀπειλήφασιν Ὀρεῖτων χάριν, ὅτι τοῖς Φιλίππου φίλοις ἐπέτεψαν αὐτούς, τὸν δ' Εὐφραῖον ἐώθον· παλὴν γ' ὁ δῆμος ὁ τῶν Ἑρετρίων, ὅτι τοὺς ὁματίετας μὲν πρὶς βίβης ἀπῆλθε, Κλεισάρχῳ δ' ἐνίδωκεν αὐτόν· δουλεύουσιν γὰρ μαστιγούμενοι καὶ στρεβλούμενοι.* Phil.

3.—Upon some very rare occasions indeed, the orator, not content with a single blow, pours himself forth in a full torrent of invective, and then we recognise the man who was said of old to eat shields and steel—*δοσίδας καὶ κατακίπτας ἰσθίων.* But still the effect is produced without repetition or diffuseness. I am not aware of any such expanded passage as the invective in the *Περὶ Στεφάνου* against those who had betrayed the various States of Greece to Philip. It is indeed a noble passage; one of the most brilliant, perhaps the most highly coloured, of any in Demosthenes; but it is as condensed and rapid as it is rich and varied.

—*Ἀνθρώποι μωροὶ καὶ πόλακες καὶ ἀλάστορες, ἡκρωτηριασμένοι τὰς ἰαυτῶ ἐκαστοὶ πατρίδας, τὴν ἐλευθερίαν προσιπικώτε· πρότερον μὲν Φιλίππῳ, τὸν δὲ Ἀλεξάνδρῳ—τῇ γαστρὶ μετρῶντες καὶ τοῖς αἰσχίστοις τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν—τὴν δ' ἐλευθερίαν καὶ τὸ μὴδένα ἔχαιν δεσπότην αὐτῶν (ἃ τοῖς προτέροις Ἑλλήσιν ὄροι τῶν ἀγαθῶν ἦσαν καὶ πανόνες), ἀνατετροφότες (Περὶ Στεφ.).**—This requires no contrast to make its merit shine forth; but compare it with any of Cicero's invectives—that, for instance, in the third Catilinarian, against the conspirators, where he attacks them regularly under six different heads, and in above twenty times as many words; and ends with the known and very moderate jest of their commander keeping "*Scortorum cohortem Prætoriam.*"

The great poet of modern Italy, Dante,† approached nearest to the ancients in the quality of which I have been speaking. In his finest passages you rarely find an epithet; hardly ever more than one; and never two efforts to embody one idea. "*A guisa di Leon quando si posa,*" is the single trait by which he compares the dignified air of a

* The object of chief abhorrence to the old Greeks is remarkably expressed in this passage—*δυσπίτης* is the correlative of *δύλος*—and the meaning of *δυσπίτην ἔχαιν αὐτῶν* is, "having an owner or proprietor of themselves," that is, "being the property, the chattels of any one,"—and this they justly deemed the last of human miseries. The addition of the cart-whip, and a tropical climate, would not probably have been esteemed by them an alleviation of the lot of slavery.

† This great poet abounds in such master strokes. To give only a few examples. The flight of doves:

Con l' ali aperte e ferme al dolce nido
Volan per l' aer, dal voler portate.—(Inf. v.)

The gnawing of a skull by a mortal enemy:

Co' denti
Che furo all' osso, come d'un can, forti.—(Inf. xxxiii.)

The venality and simoniacal practices of the Romish church:

Là dove Cristo tutto di si merca.—(Parad. xvii.)

The perfidy of a Bourbon:

Senz' arme n'esce, e solo con la lancia
Con la qual giostrò Giuda.—(Purg. xx.)

The pains of dependence:

Tu proverai sì come sa di sale
Lo pane altrui, e com' è duro calle
Lo scendere e' l' salir per l' altrui scale.—(Parad. xvii.)

stern personage to the expression of the lion slowly laying him down. It is remarkable that Tasso copies the verse entire, but he destroys its whole effect by filling up the majestic idea, adding this line, "*Girando gli occhi e non movendo il passo.*" A better illustration could not easily be found of the difference between the ancient and the modern style. Another is furnished by a later imitator of the same great master. I know no passage of the *Divina Commedia*, more excursive than the description of evening in the Purgatorio; yet the poet is content with somewhat enlarging on a single thought—the tender recollections which that hour of meditation gives the traveller, at the fall of the first night he is to pass away from home, when he hears the distant knell of the expiring day. Gray adopts the idea of the knell in nearly the words of the original, and adds eight other circumstances to it, presenting a kind of ground-plan, or at least a catalogue, an accurate enumeration (like a natural historian's,) of every one particular belonging to nightfall, so as wholly too exhaust the subject, and leave nothing to the imagination of the reader. Dante's six verses, too, have but one epithet, *dolci*, applied to *amici*. Gray has thirteen or fourteen; some of them mere repetitions of the same idea which the verb or the substantive conveys—as *drowsy tinkling lulls*,—the *moping owl complains*,—the ploughman *plods his weary way*. Surely when we contrast the simple and commanding majesty of the ancient writers with the superabundance and diffusion of the exhaustive method, we may be tempted to feel that there lurks some alloy of bitterness in the excess of sweets. This was so fully recognised by the wise ancients, that it became a proverb among them, as we learn from an epigram still preserved.

Εἰς τὴν μετρώμετα.
Πάν τὸ περιττὸν ἀκαιοῦ, ἐπὶ λόγος ἰστί παλαιός,
Ὡς καὶ τοῦ μέλιτος, τὸ πλέον ἰστί χολή.

In forming the taste by much contemplation of those antique models, and acquiring the habits of easy and chaste composition, it must not be imagined that all the labour of the orator is ended, or that he may then dauntless and fluent enter upon his office in the public assembly. Much preparation is still required before each exertion, if rhetorical excellence is aimed at. I should lay it down as a rule, admitting of no exception, that a man will speak well in proportion as he has written much; and that with equal talents, he will be the finest extempore speaker, when no time for preparing is allowed, who has prepared himself the most sedulously when he had an opportunity of delivering a premeditated speech. All the exceptions which I have ever heard cited to this principle, are apparent ones only; proving nothing more than that some few men, of rare genius, have become great speakers without preparation; in nowise showing, that with preparation they would not have reached a much higher pitch of excellence. The admitted superiority of the ancients in all oratorical accomplishments, is the best proof of my position; for their careful preparation is undeniable; nay, in Demosthenes (of whom Quintilian says, that his style indicates more premeditation—*plus curæ*—than

Cicero's) we can trace, by the recurrence of the same passage, with progressive improvements in different speeches, how nicely he polished the more exquisite parts of his compositions. I could point out favourite passages, occurring as often as three several times with variations, and manifest amendment.

I am now requiring, not merely great preparation while the speaker is learning his art, but after he has accomplished his education. The most splendid effort of the most mature orator will be always finer for being previously elaborated with much care. There is, no doubt, a charm in extemporaneous elocution, derived from the appearance of artless unpremeditated effusion, called forth by the occasion, and so adapting itself to its exigencies, which may compensate the manifold defects incident to this kind of composition: that which is inspired by the unforeseen circumstances of the moment, will be of necessity suited to those circumstances in the choice of the topics, and pitched in the tone of the execution, to the feelings upon which it is to operate. These are great virtues: it is another to avoid the besetting vice of modern oratory—the overdoing everything—the exhaustive method—which an off-hand speaker has no time to fall into, and he accordingly will take only the grand and effective view: nevertheless, in oratorical merit, such effusions must needs be very inferior; much of the pleasure they produce depends upon the hearer's surprise, that in such circumstances anything can be delivered at all, rather than upon his deliberate judgment, that he has heard anything very excellent in itself. We may rest assured that the highest reaches of the art, and without any necessary sacrifice of natural effect, can only be attained by him who well considers, and maturely prepares, and oftentimes sedulously corrects and refines his oration. Such preparation is quite consistent with the introduction of passages prompted by the occasion, nor will the transition from the one to the other be perceptible in the execution of a practised master. I have known attentive and skilful hearers completely deceived in this matter, and taking for extemporaneous passages which previously existed in manuscript, and were pronounced without the variation of a particle or a pause. Thus, too, we are told by Cicero in one of his epistles, that having to make, in Pompey's presence, a speech after Crassus had very unexpectedly taken a particular line of argument, he exerted himself, and it appears successfully, in a marvellous manner, mightily assisted, in what he said extempore, by his habit of rhetorical preparation, and introducing skilfully, as the inspiration of the moment, all his favourite common-places, with some of which, as we gather from a good-humoured joke at his own expense, Crassus had interfered: “Ego autem ipse, *Di Boni! quomodo ἐπεξεργασάμην* novo auditori Pompeio! Si unquam mihi *περίδοι, si χαμπαι, si ἐνθυμήματα, si κατασκευαί*, suppeditaverunt, illo tempore. Quid multa? clamores.—Etenim hæc erat *ἐπὶθέσις*, de gravitate ordinis, de equestri concordia, de consensione Italiæ, de immortalis reliquis conjurationis, de vilitate, de otio—*νόστι* jam in hæc materia sonitus nostros; tanti fuerunt, ut ego eo brevior sim, quod eos usque isthinc exauditos putem.” (Ep. ad Att. l. 14.)

If, from contemplating the means of acquiring eloquence, we turn to the noble purposes to which it may be made subservient, we at once perceive its prodigious importance to the best interests of mankind. The greatest masters of the art have concurred, and upon the greatest occasion of its display, in pronouncing that its estimation depends on the virtuous and rational use made of it. Let their sentiments be engraved on your memory in their own pure and appropriate diction. Καλὸν (says Æschines) τὴν μὲν διάνοιαν προαιρεῖσθαι τὰ βέλτεστα, τὴν δὲ παιδείαν τὴν τοῦ ῥήτορος καὶ τὸν λόγον πείθειν τοὺς ἀκούοντας—εἰ δὲ μή, τὴν εὐγνωμοσύνην ἀεὶ προτακτίον τοῦ γόλου—(Κατὰ Κτησιφῶντος). "Ἔστι (says his illustrious antagonist) δ' οὐχ ὁ λόγος τοῦ ῥήτορος τίμιος, οὐδ' ὁ τόπος τῆς φωνῆς, ἀλλὰ τὸ ταῦτά προαιρεῖσθαι τοῖς πολλοῖς—(Τίς Κτησ.)

It is but reciting the ordinary praises of the art of persuasion, to remind you how sacred truths may be most ardently promulgated at the altar—the cause of oppressed innocence be most powerfully defended—the march of wicked rulers be most triumphantly resisted—defiance the most terrible be hurled at the oppressor's head. In great convulsions of public affairs, or in bringing about salutary changes, every one confesses how important an ally eloquence must be. But in peaceful times, when the progress of events is slow and even as the silent and unheeded pace of time, and the jars of a mighty tumult in foreign and domestic concerns can no longer be heard, then too she flourishes—protectress of liberty—patroness of improvement—guardian of all the blessings that can be showered upon the mass of human kind; nor is her form ever seen but on ground consecrated to free institutions. "Pacis comes, otique socia, et jam bene constitutæ reipublicæ alumna eloquentia." To me, calmly revolving these things, such pursuits seem far more noble objects of ambition than any upon which the vulgar herd of busy men lavish prodigal their restless exertions. To diffuse useful information—to further intellectual refinement, sure forerunner of moral improvement—to hasten the coming of the bright day when the dawn of general knowledge shall chase away the lazy, lingering mists, even from the base of the social great pyramid;—this indeed is a high calling, in which the most splendid talents and consummate virtue may well press onward eager to bear a part. I know that I speak in a place consecrated by the pious wisdom of ancient times to the instruction of but a select portion of the community. Yet from this classic ground have gone forth those whose genius, not their ancestry, ennobled them; whose incredible merits have opened to all ranks the temple of science; whose illustrious example has made the humblest emulous to climb steep, no longer inaccessible, and enter the unfolded gates, burning in the sun. I speak in that city where Black having once taught, and Watt learned, the grand experiment was afterwards made in our day, and with entire success; to demonstrate that the highest intellectual cultivation is perfectly compatible with the daily cares and toils of working men; to show by thousands of living examples that a keen relish for the most sublime truths of science belongs alike to every class of mankind.

To promote this, of all objects the most important, men of talents and of influence I rejoice to behold pressing forward in every part of the empire; but I wait with impatient anxiety to see the same course pursued by men of high station in society, and by men of rank in the world of letters. It should seem as if these felt some little lurking jealousy, and those were somewhat scared by feelings of alarm—the one and the other surely alike groundless. No man of science needs fear to see the day when scientific excellence shall be too vulgar a commodity to bear a high price. The more widely knowledge is spread, the more will they be prized whose happy lot it is to extend its bounds by discovering new truths, or multiply its uses by inventing new modes of applying it in practice. Their numbers will indeed be increased, and among them more Watts and more Franklins will be enrolled among the lights of the world, in proportion as more thousands of the working classes, to which Franklin and Watt belonged, have their thoughts turned towards philosophy, but the order of discoverers and inventors will still be a select few, and the only material variation in their proportion to the bulk of mankind will be, that the mass of the ignorant multitude being progressively diminished, the body of those will be incalculably increased who are worthy to admire genius, and able to bestow upon its possessors an immortal fame.

To those, too, who feel alarmed as statesmen, and friends of existing establishments, I would address a few words of comfort. Real knowledge never promoted either turbulence or unbelief; but its progress is the forerunner of liberality and enlightened toleration. Whoso dreads these, let him tremble; for he may be well assured that their day is at length come and must put to sudden flight the evil spirits of tyranny and persecution, which haunted the long night now gone down the sky. As men will no longer suffer themselves to be led blindfolded in ignorance, so will they no more yield to the vile principle of judging and treating their fellow creatures, not according to the intrinsic merit of their actions, but according to the accidental and involuntary coincidence of their opinions. The great truth has finally gone forth to all the ends of the earth, **THAT MAN SHALL NO MORE RENDER ACCOUNT TO MAN FOR HIS BELIEF, OVER WHICH HE HAS HIMSELF NO CONTROL.** Henceforward, nothing shall prevail upon us to praise or to blame any one for that which he can no more change than he can the hue of his skin or the height of his stature. Henceforward, treating with entire respect those who conscientiously differ from ourselves, the only practical effect of the difference will be, to make us enlighten the ignorance on one side or the other from which it springs, by instructing them, if it be theirs; ourselves, if it be our own, to the end that the only kind of unanimity may be produced which is desirable among rational beings—the agreement proceeding from full conviction after the freest discussion. Far then, very far, from the universal spread of knowledge being the object of just apprehension to those who watch over the peace of the country, or have a deep interest in the permanence of her institutions, its sure effect will be the removal

of the only dangers that threaten the public tranquillity, and the addition of all that is wanting to confirm her internal strength.

Let me, therefore, indulge in the hope, that, among the illustrious youths whom this ancient kingdom, famed alike for its nobility and its learning, has produced, to continue her fame through after ages, possibly among those I now address, there may be found some one—I ask no more—willing to give a bright example to other nations in a path yet untrodden, by taking the lead of his fellow-citizens,—not in frivolous amusements, nor in the degrading pursuits of the ambitious vulgar,—but in the truly noble task of enlightening the mass of his countrymen, and of leaving his own name no longer encircled, as heretofore, with barbaric splendour, or attached to courtly gewgaws, but illustrated by the honours most worthy of our rational nature—coupled with the diffusion of knowledge—and gratefully pronounced through all ages by millions whom his wise beneficence has rescued from ignorance and vice. To him I will say, “*Homines ad Deos nullâ re propius accedunt quam salutem hominibus dando: nihil habet nec fortuna tua majus quam ut possis, nec natura tua melius quam ut velis servare quamplurimos.*” This is the true mark for the aim of all who either prize the enjoyment of pure happiness, or set a right value upon a high and unsullied renown.—And if the benefactors of mankind, when they rest from their pious labours, shall be permitted to enjoy hereafter, as an appropriate reward of their virtue, the privilege of looking down upon the blessings with which their toils and sufferings have clothed the scene of their former existence; do not vainly imagine that, in a state of exalted purity and wisdom, the founders of mighty dynasties, the conquerors of new empires, or the more vulgar crowd of evil-doers, who have sacrificed to their own aggrandisement the good of their fellow-creatures, will be gratified by contemplating the monuments of their inglorious fame:—theirs will be the delight—theirs the triumph—who can trace the remote effects of their enlightened benevolence in the improved condition of their species, and exult in the reflection, that the prodigious change they now survey, with eyes that age and sorrow can make dim no more—of knowledge become power—virtue sharing in the dominion—superstition trampled under foot—tyranny driven from the world—are the fruits, precious, though costly, and though late reaped, yet long enduring, of all the hardships and all the hazards they encountered here below!

PRACTICAL OBSERVATIONS

UPON THE

EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE.

1825.

TO

GEORGE BIRKBECK, M. D., F. R. S.,

PRESIDENT OF THE LONDON MECHANICS' INSTITUTION.

As I have chiefly in deference to your opinion, sanctioned by that of our fellow-labourers in the North, undertaken to make the following pages public at the present moment, I beg leave to inscribe them with your name.

You are aware that they contain a portion of a larger discourse, which more pressing but less agreeable pursuits have long prevented me from finishing, upon the important subject of Popular Education, in its three branches, Infant Schools, Elementary Schools (for reading and writing), and Adult Schools. It is only with the second of these branches that the legislature can safely interfere. Any meddling on the part of government with the first would be inexpedient;* with the last, perilous to civil and religious liberty. In conformity with this opinion, I have brought the question of Elementary Education repeatedly before Parliament, where the lukewarmness of many, and the honest and by me ever to be respected scruples of some, have hitherto much obstructed my design; the other two branches belong to the country at large. Having, in concert with those friends who hold the same doctrines, endeavoured to establish Infant Schools, it seems to follow from the same view of the subject, that I should lend any little help in my power towards fixing public attention upon the Education of Adults; by discussing the best means of aiding the people in using the knowledge gained at Schools, for their moral and intellectual improvement.

A considerable portion of the Observations was inserted in the Edinburgh Review, together with a good deal of other matter, and with one or two statements in which I do not altogether concur.

* The necessity of the legislature promoting Infant Schools has, since 1825, become apparent to all, and must be allowed to have far outstripped the measure here referred to.

PRACTICAL OBSERVATIONS, &c.

I BEGIN by assuming that there is no class of the community so entirely occupied with labour as not to have an hour or two every other day at least, to bestow upon the pleasure and improvement to be derived from reading—or so poor as not to have the means of contributing something towards purchasing this gratification, the enjoyment of which, beside the present amusement, is the surest way both to raise our character and better our condition.—Let us consider how the attainment of this inestimable advantage may be most successfully promoted.

It is no doubt manifest, that the people themselves must be the great agents in accomplishing the work of their own instruction. Unless they deeply feel the usefulness of knowledge, and resolve to make some sacrifices for the acquisition of it, there can be no reasonable prospect of this grand object being attained. But it is equally clear, that to wait until the whole people with one accord take the determination to labour in this good work, would be endless. A portion of the community may be sensible of its advantages, and willing at any fair price to seek them, long before the same laudable feeling becomes universal; and their successful efforts to better their intellectual condition cannot fail to spread more widely the love of learning, and the disrelish for sensual and vulgar gratifications.

But although the people must be the source and the instruments of their own improvement, they may be essentially aided in their efforts to instruct themselves. Impediments which might be sufficient to retard or wholly to obstruct their progress, may be removed; and efforts which, unassisted, might prove fruitless, arising perhaps from a transient, or only a partial enthusiasm for the attainment of knowledge, may, through judicious encouragement, become effectual, and settle into a lasting and universal habit. A little attention to the difficulties that principally beset the working classes in their search after information, will lead us to the knowledge both of the direction in which their more affluent neighbours can lend them most valuable assistance, and of the part which must be borne by themselves.

Their difficulties may all be classed under one or other of two heads—want of money, and want of time. To the first belongs the difficulty of obtaining those books and instructors which persons in easier circumstances can command; and to the second it is owing that the same books and instructors are not adapted to them, which suffice to teach persons who have leisure to go through the whole course of any given branch of science. In some lines of employment, there is a peculiar

difficulty in finding time for acquiring knowledge; as in those which require severe labour, or, though less severe, yet in the open air; for here the tendency to sleep immediately after it ceases, and the greater portion of sleep required, oppose very serious obstacles to instruction; on the other hand, those occupations are less unfavourable to reflection, and have a considerable tendency to enlarge the mind.

The first method, then, which suggests itself for promoting knowledge among the poor, is the encouragement of cheap publications; and in no country is this more wanted than in Great Britain, where, with all our expertness in manufactures, we have never succeeded in printing books at so little as double the price required by our neighbours on the Continent. A gown, which anywhere else would cost half a guinea, may be made in this country for half-a-crown; but a volume, fully as well or better printed, and on paper which, if not as fine, is quite fine enough, and far more agreeable to the eyes, than could be bought in London for half a guinea, costs only six francs, or less than five shillings, at Paris. The high price of labour in a trade where so little can be done, or at least has been done by machinery, is one of the causes of this difference. But the direct tax upon paper is another; and the determination to print upon paper of a certain price is a third; and the aversion to crowd the page is a fourth. Now all of these, except the first, may be got over. The duty on paper is threepence a pound, which must increase the price of an octavo volume eightpence or ninepence; and this upon paper of every kind, and printing of every kind; so that if by whatever means the price of a book were reduced to the lowest, say to three or four shillings, about a fourth or a fifth must be added for the tax; and this book, brought as low as possible to accommodate the poor man, with the coarsest paper and most ordinary type, must pay exactly as much to government as the finest hot-pressed work of the same size. This tax ought, therefore, by all means, to be given up; but though, from its being the same upon all paper used in printing, no part of it can be saved by using coarse paper, much of it may be saved by crowding the letterpress, and having a very narrow margin. This experiment has been tried of late in London upon a considerable scale; but it may easily be carried a great deal further. Thus, Hume's History* has been begun; and one volume, containing about two and a half of the former editions, has been published.† It is sold for 6*s.* 6*d.*; but it contains a great number of cuts neatly executed; the paper is much better than is necessary; and the printing is perfectly well done. Were the cuts omitted, and the most ordinary paper and type used, the price might be reduced to 4*s.* or 4*s.* 6*d.*; and a book might thus be sold for 12*s.* or 14*s.*, which now costs perhaps above two pounds. A repeal of the tax upon paper, which is truly a tax upon knowledge, and falls the

* It is to be regretted that any edition of this popular work should ever be published without notes, to warn the reader of the author's partiality when moved by the interest of civil and ecclesiastical controversy, and his careless and fanciful narrative when occupied with other events

† Dolby's Cheap Histories.

heaviest upon those who most want instruction, would further reduce the price to 9s. or 10s.

The method of publishing in numbers is admirably suited to the circumstances of the classes whose income is derived from wages. Twopence is easily saved in a week by almost any labourer; and by a mechanic sixpence in a week may without difficulty be laid by. Those who have not attended to such matters, would be astonished to find how substantial a meal of information may be had by twopenny-worths. Seven numbers, for fourteenpence, comprise Franklin's *Life and Essays*; four for eightpence, Bacon's *Essays*; and thirty-six for six shillings, the whole of the *Arabian Nights*. Cook's *Voyages*, in threepenny numbers, with many good engravings, may be had complete for seven shillings; and Plutarch's *Lives*, for ten shillings, will soon be finished.* The *Mirror*, a weekly publication, containing much matter of harmless and even improving amusement, selected with very considerable taste, has besides, in almost every number, information of a most instructive kind. Its great circulation must prove highly beneficial to the bulk of the people. I understand, that of some parts upwards of 80,000 were printed, and there can be no doubt that the entertainment which is derived from reading the lighter essays, may be made the means of conveying knowledge of a more solid and useful description—a consideration which I trust the conductor will always bear in mind. The *Mechanics' Magazine*,† most ably edited by Mr Robertson, has from its establishment had an extensive circulation; and it communicates for threepence a-week far more valuable information, both scientific and practical, than was ever before placed within the reach of those who could afford to pay six times as much for it. A similar work is published at Glasgow upon the same plan. The *Chemist*, also for threepence, is learnedly and judiciously conducted by Mr Hodgkin, and contains an admirable collection of the most useful chemical papers and intelligence. A *Mechanics' Register* has lately been begun, and with immediate success. It is a weekly paper, for the same price; and although, being principally intended for the use of the workmen, it bestows peculiar attention on whatever concerns that order, yet the occurrences which it communicates, and the discussions which it contains, are also those most interesting to philosophers themselves. The day, indeed, seems now to break, when we may hope to see no marked line of separation between the two classes. I trust another distinction will also soon be known no more. The circulation of cheap works of a merely amusing kind, as well as of those connected with the arts, is at present very great in England; those of an aspect somewhat more forbidding, though at once moral, interesting, and most useful, is very limited; while in Scotland there is a considerable demand for them. Habits of reading longer formed in that country have taught the inhabitants, that nothing in reality can be

* Limbird's *Classics*.

† Knight and Lacy; who have done great service by publishing other works of singular cheapness and merit. The *Dictionary of Architecture* is one of the most extraordinary in this respect.

more attractive than the profound wisdom of every day's application, sustained by unbounded learning, and embellished with the most brilliant fancy, which so richly furnishes every page of the *Essays of Bacon*.

It is undoubtedly from the circumstance just mentioned, that in looking over the list of those cheap publications, which are unconnected with the arts, we certainly do not find many that are of a very instructive cast; and here it is that something may be done by way of encouragement. That the demand for books, cheap as well as dear, must tend to produce them, no one denies; but then it is equally certain that the publication of cheap books increases the number of readers among the poor; and one can hardly conceive a greater benefit than those would confer, who should make a judicious selection from our best authors upon ethics, politics, and history, and promote cheap editions of them in numbers, without waiting until the demand was such as to make the sale a matter of perfect certainty. Lord John Russell, in his excellent and instructive speech upon Parliamentary reform, delivered in 1822, stated, that "an establishment was commenced a few years ago, by a number of individuals, with a capital of not less than a million, for the purpose of printing standard works at a cheap rate;" and he added, that it had been "very much checked in its operation by one of those acts for the suppression of knowledge which were passed in the year 1819, although one of its rules was not to allow the venders of its works to sell any book on the political controversies of the day." The only part of this plan which appears at all objectionable, is the restriction upon politics. Why should not political, as well as all other works, be published in a cheap form, and in numbers? That history, the nature of the constitution, the doctrines of political economy, may safely be disseminated in this shape, no man now-a-days will be hardy enough to deny. Popular tracts, indeed, on the latter subject, ought to be much more extensively circulated for the good of the working classes, as well as of their superiors. The interests of both are deeply concerned in sounder views being taught them; I can hardly imagine, for example, a greater service being rendered to the men, than expounding to them the true principles and mutual relations of population and wages; and both they and their masters will assuredly experience the effects of the prevailing ignorance upon such questions, as soon as any interruption shall happen in the commercial prosperity of the country, if indeed the present course of things, daily tending to lower wages as well as profits, and set the two classes in opposition to each other, shall not of itself bring on a crisis. To allow, or rather to induce the people to take part in those discussions, is therefore not merely safe, but most wholesome for the community, and yet some points connected with them are matter of pretty warm contention in the present times; but these may be freely handled, it seems, with safety; indeed, unless they are so handled, such subjects cannot be discussed at all. Why, then, may not every topic of politics, party as well as general, be treated of in cheap publications? It is highly useful to the community that the true principles of the constitution, ecclesiastical and civil, should be well understood by every man who lives under it.

The great interests of civil and religious liberty are mightily promoted by such wholesome instruction; but the good order of society gains to the full as much by it. The peace of the country, and the stability of the government, could not be more effectually secured than by the universal diffusion of this kind of knowledge. The abuses which through time have crept into the practice of the constitution, the errors committed in its administration, and the improvements which a change of circumstances require even in its principles, may most fitly be expounded in the same manner. And if any man or set of men deny the existence of such abuses, see no error in the conduct of those who administer the government, and regard all innovation upon its principles as pernicious, they may propagate their doctrines through the like channels. Cheap works being furnished, the choice of them may be left to the readers. Assuredly, a country which tolerates every kind, even the most unmeasured, of daily and weekly discussion in the newspapers, can have nothing to dread from the diffusion of political doctrines in a form less desultory, and more likely to make them be both well weighed at the time, and preserved for repeated perusal. It cannot be denied that the habit of cursory reading, engendered by finding all subjects discussed in publications, which, how great soever their merits may be, no one looks at a second time, is unfavourable to the acquisition of solid and permanent information.

Although the publication of cheap works is the most effectual method of bringing knowledge within the reach of a poor man's income, there are other modes deserving our attention, whereby a similar assistance may be rendered, and his resources economized. Circulating libraries may in some circumstances be of use; but, generally speaking, they are little suited to those who have only an hour or two every day, or every other day, to bestow upon reading. *Book Clubs*, or *Reading Societies*, are far more suited to the labouring classes, may be established by very small numbers of contributors, and require an inconsiderable fund. If the associates live near one another, arrangements may be easily made for circulating the books, so that they may be in use every moment that any one can spare from his work. Here, too, the rich have an opportunity presented to them of promoting instruction without constant interference; the gift of a few books, as a beginning, will generally prove a sufficient encouragement to carry on the plan by weekly or monthly contributions; and with the gift a scheme may be communicated, to assist the contributors in arranging the plan of their association. I would here remark the great effect of combination upon such plans, in making the money of individuals go far. Three-halfpence a-week laid by in a whole family, will enable it to purchase in a year one of the cheap volumes of which I have spoken above; and a penny a-week would be sufficient, were the publications made as cheap as possible. Now, let only a few neighbours join, say ten or twelve, and lend each other the books bought, and it is evident, that for a price so small as to be within the reach of the poorest labourer, all may have full as many books in the course of the year as it is possible

for them to read, even supposing that the books bought by every one are not such as all the others desire to have.* The publication of books in numbers greatly helps this plan; for it enables those who choose to begin it at any time, without waiting until they have laid by enough to purchase a volume in each family; and where books not so published are wanted, booksellers would do well to aid such associations by giving them a year's credit; whatever propagates a taste for reading must secure their interest in the end. In many parts of Scotland, *Parish Libraries* have been formed with a view to the same object. They originated, I believe, in general with the wealthier classes and the farmers; but after laying the foundation by collecting a few books, those persons left the management most wisely to the readers themselves, and required them to pay for the support of the fund and purchase of new books. *Cottage Libraries*, upon a somewhat similar plan, are beginning to be formed in some parts of England. There is one at Taunton, where the contributors pay only a penny a-week; and above a thousand issues of books have been made to eighty persons in the course of a year. The only officers are a treasurer and librarian, who attend every Saturday evening, to exchange the books and receive subscriptions. They also select the books; a faulty arrangement in my opinion, unless the officers are themselves chosen by the readers. The obvious and the sound plan is to establish some general regulation respecting the kind of books to be purchased (which must, in some degree, depend on the circumstances of each association), and then to let each contributor choose in proportion to what he pays, or to let several join in choosing a book equal in price to their united contributions. If the rich patrons of the scheme wish to interfere with the choice, it should be either by giving books, or choosing in proportion to their pecuniary contribution. But I confess I should be better pleased to see such libraries, after they are once established, left wholly to the support of the readers, who are sure to care for them if they pay for them, long after richer patrons would tire of the details.

An excellent plan was about ten years ago adopted by Mr. S. Brown, of Haddington, for instructing the towns and villages of the county of East Lothian, in succession, by means of the same books. It began with only a few volumes; but he now has 19 *Itinerant Libraries* of 50 volumes each, which are sent round the different stations, remaining a certain time at each. For these there are 19 divisions, and 15 stations, 4 divisions being always in use at the chief town, and 2 at another town of some note. An individual at each station acts as librarian. There are 700 or 800 readers, and the expenses,

* It is found that the average number of volumes read by the members of a Mechanic's Institution, in a great town, is between 10 and 11 a-year; by the members of a book society, in the villages of an agricultural district, between 5 and 6. Now, the cheap books contain between two and three times the matter in the ordinary publications; therefore it is evident, that such an association as that proposed, would have three times as much reading as is wanted in towns, and five or six times as much as in the country.

under £60 a year, are defrayed by the produce of a sermon, the sale of some tracts, and subscriptions, in small sums averaging 5s. This plan is now adopted in Berwickshire, by Mr. Buchan of Kelloe, with this very great improvement, that the current expenses are defrayed by the readers, who pay twopence a month, and I hope choose the books. These libraries have given rise to a scientific institution, as we shall presently see; and it is peculiarly gratifying to observe that the original scheme from which the whole has followed, was merely a library for *religious tracts*, established ever since 1810; and into which were afterwards introduced, in perfect consistency with the primary object, some literary and scientific works.

It is, however, not only necessary that the money of the working classes, but their time also, should be economized; and this consideration leads to various suggestions.

In the *first* place, there are many occupations in which a number of persons work in the same room; and unless there be something noisy in the work, one may always read while the others are employed. If there are twenty-four men together, this arrangement would only require each man to work one extra day in four weeks, supposing the reading to go on the whole day, which it would not; but a boy or a girl might be engaged to perform the task, at an expense so trifling as not to be felt. This expedient, too, it may be observed, would save money as well as time; one copy of a book, and that borrowed for the purpose, or obtained from a reading society or circulating library, would suffice for a number of persons. I may add, that great help would be given by the better informed and more apt learners, to such as are slower of apprehension and more ignorant; and discussion (under proper regulations) would be of singular use to all, even the most forward proficient; which leads me to observe,

Secondly, That societies for the express purpose of promoting conversation are a most useful adjunct to any private or other education received by the working classes. Those who do not work together in numbers, or whose occupation is of a noisy kind, may thus, one or two evenings in the week, meet and obtain all the advantages of mutual instruction and discussion. An association of this kind will naturally combine with its plan the advantages of a book club. The members will most probably be such as have engaged in similar pursuits, and whose train of reading and thinking may be nearly the same. The only considerable evils which they will have to avoid, are, being too numerous, and falling too much into debate. From twenty to thirty seems a convenient number; and nearer the former than the latter. The tone ought to be given from the beginning, in ridicule of speech-making, both as to length and wordiness. A subject of discussion may be given out at one meeting for the next; or the chairman may read a portion of some work, allowing each member to stop him at any moment, for the purpose of controverting, supporting, or illustrating by his remarks the passage just read. To societies of this kind master-workmen have the power of affording facilities. They may allow an hour on the days when the meetings

are holden; or if that is too much, they may allow the men to begin an hour earlier on those days; or if even that cannot be managed, they may let them have an hour and a half, on condition of working half an hour extra on three other days. But a more essential help will be the giving them a place to meet. There are hardly twenty or thirty workmen in any branch of business, some of whose masters have not a room, workshop, warehouse, or other place sufficient to accommodate such a society: and it is quite necessary that the place of rendezvous should on no account be the ale-house. Whoever lent his premises for this purpose, might satisfy himself that no improper persons should be admitted, by taking the names of the whole club from two or three steady men, who could be answerable for the demeanour of the rest. Any interference beyond this would be unwise; unless in so far as the men might voluntarily consult their masters from time to time; and their disposition to do so must depend wholly upon the relations of kindness and mutual confidence subsisting between the parties. If any difficulty should be found in obtaining the use of a room from their masters, there seems to be no good reason why they should not have the use of any school-room that may be in their neighbourhood; and one room of this kind may accommodate several societies; three, if the meetings are twice a-week; and six, if they only meet once. I shall presently illustrate this matter further when I come to speak of the Glasgow Institution.

In the *third* place, it is evident that as want of time prevents the operative classes from pursuing a systematic course of education in all its details, a more summary and compendious method of instruction must be adopted by them. The majority must be content with never going beyond a certain point, and with reaching that point by the most expeditious route. A few, thus initiated in the truths of science, will no doubt push their attainments much further; and for these the works in common use will suffice; but for the multitude it will be most essential that works should be prepared adapted to their circumstances. Thus, in teaching them geometry, it is not necessary to go through the whole steps of that beautiful system, by which the most general and remote truths are connected with the few simple definitions and axioms; enough will be accomplished, if they are made to perceive the nature of geometrical investigation, and learn the leading properties of figure. In like manner, they may be taught the doctrines of mechanics with a much more slender previous knowledge both of geometry and algebra, than the common elementary works on dynamics presuppose in the reader. Hence, a most essential service will be rendered to the cause of knowledge by him who shall devote his time to the composition of elementary treatises on the Mathematics, sufficiently clear, and yet sufficiently compendious, to exemplify the method of reasoning employed in that science, and to impart an accurate knowledge of the most useful fundamental propositions, with their application to practical purposes; and treatises upon Natural Philosophy, which may teach the great principles of physics, and their practical application, to readers who have but a general knowledge

EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE.

of mathematics, or who are even wholly ignorant of the science beyond the common rules of arithmetic. Nor let it be supposed, that the time thus bestowed is given merely to instruct the people in the rudiments of philosophy, though this would of itself be an object sufficiently brilliant to allure the noblest ambition; for what higher achievement did the most sublime philosophy ever aspire after, than to elevate the views and refine the character of the great mass of mankind—at least in later times, when science no longer looks down as of old upon the multitude, supercilious, and deeming that great spirits alone perish not with the body? But if extending the bounds of science itself be the grand aim of all philosophers in all ages, they indirectly, but surely, accomplish this object, who enable thousands to speculate and experiment for one to whom the path of investigation is now open. It is not necessary that all who are taught, or even any large proportion, should go beyond the rudiments; but whoever feels within himself a desire and an aptitude to proceed further, will press forward; and the chances of discovery, both in the arts and in science itself, will be thus indefinitely multiplied. Indeed, those discoveries immediately connected with experiment and observation, are most likely to be made by men, whose lives being spent in the midst of mechanical operations, are at the same time instructed in the general principles upon which these depend, and trained betimes to habits of speculation. He who shall prepare a treatise simply and concisely unfolding the doctrines of Algebra, Geometry, and Mechanics, and adding examples calculated to strike the imagination, of their connection with other branches of knowledge, and with the arts of common life, may fairly claim a large share in that rich harvest of discovery and invention which must be reaped by the thousands of ingenious and active men, thus enabled to bend their faculties towards objects at once useful and sublime.

Although much may be done by the exertions of individuals, it is manifest that a great deal more may be effected by the labours of a body, in furthering this important measure. The subject has for some time past been under consideration, and I am not without hopes of seeing formed a society for promoting the composition, publication, and distribution of cheap and useful works. To qualify persons for becoming efficient members of this association, or co-operating with it all over the country, neither splendid talents, nor profound learning, nor great wealth are required. Though such gifts, in their amplest measure, would not be thrown away upon so important a design, they are by no means indispensable to its success. A well-informed man of good sense, filled with the resolution to obtain for the great body of his fellow-creatures, that high improvement which both their understandings and their morals are by nature fitted to receive, may labour in this good work, either in the central institution or in some remote district, with the certainty of success, if he have only that blessing of leisure for the sake of which riches are chiefly to be coveted. Such a one, however averse by taste or habit to the turmoil of public affairs, or the more ordinary strifes of the world, may in all quiet and inno-

cence enjoy the noblest gratification of which the most aspiring nature is susceptible; he may influence by his single exertions the character and the fortunes of a whole generation, and thus wield a power to be envied even by vulgar ambition for the extent of its dominion—to be cherished by virtue itself for the unalloyed blessings it bestows.

Fourthly, The preparation of elementary works is not the only, nor, at first, is it the most valuable service that can be rendered towards economizing the time of the labouring classes. The institution of lectures is, of all the helps that can be given, the most valuable, where circumstances permit; that is, in towns of a certain size. Much may thus be taught, even without any other instruction; but, combined with reading, and subservient to it, the effects of public lectures are great indeed, especially in the present deficiency of proper elementary works. The students are enabled to read with advantage; things are explained to them which no books sufficiently illustrate; access is afforded to teachers, who can remove the difficulties which occur perpetually in the reading of uneducated persons; a word may often suffice to get rid of some obstacle which would have impeded the unassisted student's progress for days; and then, whatever requires the performance of experiments to become intelligible, can only be learnt by the bulk of mankind at a lecture, inasmuch as the wealthy alone can have such lessons in private; and none but men highly gifted can hope to master those branches of science without seeing the experimental illustrations.

The branches of knowledge to which these observations chiefly apply, are Mechanical Philosophy and Chemistry, both as being more intimately connected with the arts, and as requiring more explanation and illustration by experiment. But the Mathematics, Astronomy, and Geology, the two former especially, are well fitted for being taught publicly, and are of great practical use. Nor is there any reason why Moral and Political Philosophy should not be explained in public lectures, though they may be learnt by reading far more easily than the physical sciences.

In all plans of this description, it is absolutely necessary that the expenses should mainly be defrayed by those for whose benefit they are contrived. It is the province of the rich to lay the foundation, by making certain advances which are required in the first instance, and enabling the poor to come forward, both as learners and contributors. But no such scheme can either take a deep root, or spread over the country so as to produce its full measure of good, unless its support is derived from those who are chiefly to reap the benefits. Those benefits are well worth the paying for; they are not only of great value in the improvement and gratification which they afford to the mind, but in the direct addition which they make to the pecuniary resources of the labouring classes. Instruction in the principles upon which the arts depend, will repay in actual profit to those who live by the arts, far more than the cost of learning. An artisan, a dyer, an engine-maker, will gain the more in money or money's worth for being an expert chemist or mechanician; and a farm-servant, or bailiff,

for knowing the economy and diseases of cattle. I have before me the extract of a letter from one of the greatest engine-makers in the country, stating, that a young man in humble life had been selected from among many applicants, to fill a considerable place in the manufactory, on account of his proficiency in science. The profit directly accruing from the knowledge of those sciences provides an immediate fund, out of which the cost of acquiring it may be easily defrayed; but a fund is as certainly, though somewhat more remotely secured for repaying, with large interest, the expense of acquiring knowledge of a more general description—those branches of learning which improve the morals, expand the understanding, and refine the taste. That invaluable fund is composed of the savings made by substituting pure and harmless and cheap gratifications, in the stead of luxuries which are both grosser and more costly—hurtful to the health, and wasteful of time.

The yearly cost of a lecture in the larger cities, where enlightened and public-spirited men may be found willing to give instruction for nothing, is indeed considerably less than in smaller places, where a compensation must be made for the lecturer's time and work. But it seems advisable, that, even where gratuitous assistance could be obtained, something like an adequate remuneration should be afforded, both to preserve the principle of independence among the working classes, and to secure the more accurate and regular discharge of the duty. We shall therefore suppose, that the lectures, as well as the current expenses of the room, and where there are experiments, of the apparatus, are to be paid for; and still it appears by no means an undertaking beyond the reach of those classes. The most expensive courses of teaching will be those requiring apparatus; but those are likewise the most directly profitable to the scholars. Contributions may be reckoned upon to begin the plan, including the original purchase of apparatus; and then we may estimate the yearly cost, which alone will fall upon the members of the association. The hire of a room may be reckoned at £30; the salary of a lecturer, £40; wear and tear of apparatus, £20; assistant and servant, £10; clerk or collector, £10; fire and lamps, £5; printing and advertising, £15; making in all £130. But if two or three courses be delivered in the same room, the expenses of each will be reduced in proportion. Suppose three: the room may probably be had for £50, the printing for £20, and the servants for £30; so that the expense of each course will be reduced to about £100. Each course may occupy six months of weekly lectures; consequently, if only a hundred artisans are to be found who can spare a shilling a-week, one lecture may be carried on for £130; and if 120 artisans can be found to spare a shilling a-week, three courses may be carried on during the year, and each person attend the whole. This calculation, however, supposes a very considerable town. If the families engaged in trade and handicrafts have, one with another, a single person contributing, the number of a hundred answers to a population of 770, supposing the proportion of persons engaged in trade and handicrafts to be the same as in the West Riding

of Yorkshire; and 710, taking the proportion of Lancashire. If, indeed, we take the proportions in the manufacturing towns, it will answer in some cases to a population of 5500, and in others of little more than 500. But even taking the proportion from towns in the least manufacturing counties, as Huntingdonshire, the population required to furnish 100 will not exceed 900—which supposes a town of about 200 houses. One of three times the size is but an inconsiderable place; and yet in such a place, upon a very moderate computation, 200 persons might easily be found to spare sixpence a-week all the year round; which would be amply sufficient for two lectures. In the larger towns, where 500 or 600 persons might associate, five shillings a-quarter would be sufficient to carry on three or four lectures, and leave between £150 and £200 a-year for the purchase of books.

In estimating the expenses, I have supposed a room to be hired and the rent to be moderate. To make a beginning, the parties must make a shift with any public room or other place that may be vacant; the great point is to begin: the numbers are certain to increase, and the income with the numbers, as the plan becomes known and its manifold attractions operate upon the people. For the same reason I reckon a small sum for apparatus. Great progress may be made in teaching with very cheap and simple experiments. Indeed, some of the most important, if not the most showy, are the least costly and complicated. By far the grandest discoveries in natural science were made with hardly any apparatus. A pan of water and two thermometers were the tools that in the skilful hands of Black detected latent heat; a crown's worth of glass, threepenny-worth of salt, a little chalk, and a pair of scales, enabled the same great philosopher to found the system of modern chemistry, by tracing the existence and the combinations of fixed air; with little more machinery the genius of Scheele* created the materials of which the fabric was built, and anticipated some of the discoveries that have illustrated a later age; a prism, a lens, and a sheet of pasteboard, enabled Newton to unfold the composition of light, and the origin of colours; Franklin† ascertained the nature of lightning with a kite, a wire, a bit of riband, and a key:—to say nothing of the great chemist of our own day,‡ of whose most useful, perhaps most philosophical discovery, the principle might have been traced with the help of a common wire fire-guard. Even the elements of mechanics may be explained with apparatus almost as cheap and simple.—To take one instance; the fundamental property of the lever (and I may say of the whole science), may be demonstrated by a foot rule, a knife, and a few leaden balls of equal size. The other mechanical powers (which are indeed for the most part resolvable into the lever), may be explained with almost equal ease; and after all, it is those principles that practical men most require to have unfolded, and their application to mechanism illustrated, by figures and instruments. Machinery, even in its complicated form, is

* A working chemist.

† A working printer.

‡ Sir Humphry Davy.

more easily understood by them, because they are in practice familiar with its operations and terms, and will follow the description of an engine and its workings without a model, or at most with a drawing, far more readily than the learners of natural science in other conditions of life. The simplification of apparatus for teaching physical science is an important object, and one to which learned men may most usefully direct their attention. There cannot be a doubt, that a compendious set of machines may be constructed to illustrate at a very cheap price a whole course of lectures. Certain parts may be prepared capable of being formed into various combinations, so as to present different engines; and where separate models are necessary, their construction may be greatly simplified by omitting parts which are not essential to explain the principle, and show the manner of working. The price, too, will be greatly reduced when a larger number being required of each, they may be prepared by wholesale. A friend of mine is at present occupied in devising the best means of simplifying apparatus for lectures upon the mechanical powers; and cheap chemical laboratories may then receive his consideration. It is likewise in contemplation at a great manufacturing establishment, where every part of the machinery is made upon the spot, to prepare a number of sets of cheap apparatus for teaching, so that any Mechanics' Institution may on very moderate terms be furnished at least with what is necessary for carrying on a course of dynamics. The drawings may be multiplied by the polygraphic methods generally in use.

The difficulty of obtaining a fit lecturer is one likely for some time to be much felt, especially in small towns. One method of removing it is by sending an experienced teacher from place to place; and the man qualified for the task, who should fastidiously reject so useful and so honourable an occupation, might be a man of science, but would little deserve to be called a philosopher. No talents and no acquirements are too great to be thus applied; and no use to which parts and learning can be put is more dignified. But another supply of instructors will soon be ready. Each institution now established must in a short time form teachers. Among a great number of students, some must be found to make such progress as will qualify them for the office. In the Edinburgh School of Arts, a joiner has for some time past been teaching mathematics, which he learnt there. At Glasgow, a person of the same trade, who had been taught at the school established by Dr. Birkbeck, has lectured on geography, chemistry, and mechanics. These instances prove that the men will be able to teach; it is equally clear that the wages of a lecturer will make them turn their attention to this business in places where one is wanted.

After all, it may often happen that a lecture cannot be undertaken on however moderate a plan; in that case it will be advisable to begin with a library, to which a lecture may afterwards be added.—This was the course pursued at Kendal, where a "*Mechanics' and Apprentices' Library*" was begun last spring, and in autumn a course

of lectures was delivered upon the Philosophy of Natural History. At Carlisle, and I believe at Hawick, the same method has been adopted.

I have remarked, that in forming these Institutions, it is a fundamental principle to make the expenses be mainly defrayed by the mechanics themselves; it is another principle, in my opinion equally essential, that they should have the principal share in the management. This seems necessary for securing both the success and the independence of the system. Nor is there the least reason to apprehend mismanagement. If benefit societies are, upon the whole, well managed, we may rely upon institutions being still better conducted, where the improvement of the mind being the object, those only will ever take an active part, who are desirous of their own advancement in knowledge, and of the general instruction of the class to which they belong. Indeed, there seems no better means of securing the continued attention of the directors, than placing the direction in the hands of those who are alone interested in the prosperity of the concern. Neither is there any fear that the suggestions of persons in a higher station, and of more ample information, may not be duly attended to. Gratitude for the assistance received, and the advice offered, together with a conviction that the only motive for interfering is the good of the establishment, will give at least their just weight to the recommendations of patrons; and if it were not always so, far better would it be to see such influence fail entirely, than to run the risk of the apathy which might be occasioned among the men, and abuse of the institutions themselves, which might frequently be produced by excluding from the control of their affairs those whose interests are the only object in view. The opinions of patrons are always sure to have influence as long as their object plainly is to promote the good of those for whom the institution was founded; and as soon as they are actuated by any other views, it is very fit that their influence should cease. There is nearly as little reason to apprehend, that the necessity of discussing, at meetings of the members, the affairs of the institution, will give rise to a spirit of controversy and a habit of making speeches. Those meetings for private business will of course be held very seldom; and a feeling may always be expected to prevail, that the continuance of the establishment depends upon preserving union, notwithstanding any diversity of opinion in matters of detail, and upon keeping the discussion of rules and regulations subordinate to the attendance upon the lectures, the main object of the establishment. The time when information and advice are most wanted, with other assistance from the wealthy and the well-informed, is at the beginning of the undertaking; and at that time the influence of those patrons will necessarily be the most powerful. Much depends upon a right course being taken at first; proper rules laid down; fit subjects selected for lecture; good teachers chosen; and upon all these matters the opinions and wishes of those who chiefly contribute to found the several institutions, must receive great attention. What I have now stated, is not merely that which seems likely to happen by

reasoning from the circumstances; it has in fact happened in the instances where the trial has been made on the largest scale. We have never found any inconvenience from this plan during the twelve months that our Mechanics' Institution in London has been established. In Glasgow, there is a much longer experience in its favour; with this addition, that a contrary plan having at one time been pursued there, the men ceased to interest themselves in the lecture; and the institution declined. The extraordinary success of the new institution, which now places it at the head of all such establishments, may chiefly be ascribed to its administration being in the hands of the men themselves.

I have said that the *independence* of these undertakings, as well as their success, is to be considered. I really should be disposed to view any advantage in point of knowledge gained by the body of the people, as somewhat equivocal, or at least as much alloyed with evil, if purchased by the increase of their dependence upon their superiors. They will always be abundantly thankful for the help afforded them in beginning such institutions, and quite ready to receive advice from those who render them assistance. But if the latter keep the management entirely in their own hands, they enforce the appeal to gratitude by something very like control; and they hurt the character of those whom they would serve. For this reason, as well as for promoting more effectually and generally the establishment of these institutions, it is of the last importance that the yearly expense should be reduced to such a sum as can be wholly raised by the students. What they receive in money from their superiors will then be given once for all at the outset; what they receive from time to time in good counsel, and in teaching, either by lectures or publications, shows much real kindness, confers a great benefit, and ensures a grateful return, without bringing into action any of those feelings alike painful and injurious, which arise from the assumption of authority grounded on the mere differences of rank and wealth.

It is now fit that we advert to the progress that has already been made in establishing this system of instruction. Its commencement was the work of Dr. Birkbeck, to whom the people of this island owe a debt of gratitude, the extent of which it would not be easy, perhaps in the present age not possible, to describe; for as, in most cases, the effective demand precedes the supply, it would have been more in the ordinary course of things, that a teacher should spring up at the call of the mechanics for instruction; but long before any symptoms appeared of such an appetite on their part, and with the avowed purpose of implanting the desire in them, or at least of unfolding and directing it, by presenting the means of gratification, that most learned and excellent person formed the design, as enlightened as it was benevolent, of admitting the working classes of his fellow-countrymen to the knowledge of sciences, till then almost deemed the exclusive property of the higher ranks in society, and only acquired accidentally and irregularly in a few rare instances of extraordinary natural talents, by any of the working classes. Dr. Birkbeck, before he settled in London,

where he has since reached the highest station in the medical profession, resided for some time in Glasgow as professor in the Anderson College; and about the year 1800, he announced a course of lectures on Natural Philosophy, and its application to the Arts, for the instruction of mechanics. But a few at the first availed themselves of this advantage; by degrees, however, the extraordinary perspicuity of the teacher's method, the judicious selection of his experiments, and the natural attractions of the subject, to men whose lives were spent in directing or witnessing operations, of which the principles were now first unfolded to them, proved successful in diffusing a general taste for the study; and when he left Glasgow two or three years afterwards, about seven hundred eagerly and constantly attended the class.

For some time after Dr. Birkbeck's departure, the lectures of his able and worthy successor Dr. Ure were well frequented; and when the number of the students began to decline, probably from the circumstance of their having no direct share in the management of the institution, the professor happily thought of adding to it a library for the use of the mechanics, and entrusting the direction of it entirely to a committee chosen by themselves. This gave new life to the enterprise, and the Gas Light Company having in return for some services rendered them by the professor, agreed to light the book-room two evenings in the week, a custom arose among the men who came to change their books, of remaining to converse upon the subjects of their reading, and an extraordinary impulse was thus given to their spirit of inquiry. The library committee, too, being chosen by the whole body, became in some sort its representative, and claimed to interfere in the management of the Institution. It soon happened that some of their suggestions were not attended to; and a difference, at first to be regretted, led to consequences highly beneficial; for a great number seceded from the lectures and formed an institution entirely under the management of the mechanics themselves. It has been successful beyond all expectation; a thousand working men attended it last winter, while the numbers of the parent establishment were scarcely diminished. Out of these public associations has arisen one upon a more confined but most useful plan, applicable to every large manufactory. The Gas Light Company's men, between 60 and 70 in number, have formed themselves, on the suggestion of Mr. Nelson the foreman, into a club for mutual instruction; laying by a small sum monthly, they have collected about 300 volumes, and the company giving them a library room, which they light and heat, the men meet every evening to converse upon literary and scientific subjects, and once a week to lecture; any one who chooses, giving a fortnight's notice that he will treat on some subject which he has been studying. The books are of all kinds, with the exception of theology, which from the various sects the men belong to is of necessity excluded.*

* I owe this interesting information to an admirable letter of Mr. D. Bannatyne to Dr. Birkbeck, in the *Mechanics' Register*. Mr. B. as early as 1817 strongly recommended to the country the extension of Dr. B.'s plan, in a valuable paper which he contributed to Mr. M. Napier's *Encyclopædia*.

It is somewhat singular, that although there are many towns in Scotland, and some within a short distance of Glasgow, where hundreds of artisans are collected, yet twenty years elapsed before the example was followed, and men profited by an experiment, which, for so long a period, was constantly before their eyes, and attended with such remarkable success. It was not till the year 1821 that Edinburgh adopted the plan with some variations, a part of which appear to be improvements.

The promoters of the measure began by drawing up a short sketch of the proposed institution, and causing it to be circulated among the principal master mechanics, with a request that they would read it in their workshops, and take down the names of such of the men as were desirous of being taught the principles of those sciences most useful to artisans. In the course of ten days, between 70 and 80 names were entered; and a private meeting was held of a few gentlemen who were disposed to encourage the experiment. These resolved to begin a subscription for the purpose. In April 1821, they circulated a prospectus among the mechanics, announcing the commencement of a Course of Lectures on Mechanics, and another on Chemistry, in October following—with the opening of a Library of Books upon the same subjects, for perusal at home as well as in the room; the hours of lecture to be from eight to nine in the evening, twice a-week for six months; and the terms of admission to the whole, both lectures and library, fifteen shillings a-year. A statement was then issued to the public at large, announcing the establishment of a "*School of Arts*," with the particulars of the plan; and so well was it received, by all classes, that in September, notice was given of 220 mechanics having entered as students, and such a sum having been subscribed by the public, as enabled the directors to open the establishment in October. When 400 had purchased tickets, the two courses of lectures were delivered by Dr. Forbes and Mr. Galbraith; to which one on Architecture and one on Farriery were added, with a class for architectural and mechanical drawing during the summer recess.

The Mechanical Lectures had hardly begun, when some of the students, finding the want of mathematical knowledge, proposed to form themselves into a class, under one of their own number, a joiner, who had agreed to teach them gratuitously the elements of geometry, and the higher branches of arithmetic. This suggestion was warmly approved of by the directors, and some assistance in books being given, thirty met once a-week for geometry, and once for arithmetic; and adopting the plan of mutual instruction, they arranged the class in five divisions, each under the best scholar as a Monitor, and going over in one night the lessons of the night before. The number of this class being limited to thirty, those who were excluded formed another on the same plan, under a cabinet-maker, also a student of the School of Arts. The joiner's name is James Yule; the cabinet-maker's, David Dewar; and their successful exertions to teach their fellow-workmen are deserving of very great commendation. Mr. Galbraith, the mechanical professor, adopted the plan of setting exercises to his

pupils; and a list has been published of those who chiefly distinguished themselves by the number and accuracy of their solutions, being 25 persons.

The average receipts of the two first years were, from subscriptions, £448 yearly, and from the students £300. The average expenditure was about £620, and a saving of £300 was made towards building a lecture-room. The expenditure includes, for furniture and apparatus, £216 a-year; for books and binding, £110; and for expenses incident to the subscriptions, as advertisements, collection and meetings, about £70;—leaving of current necessary expenses, about £220 only: so that, if the extrinsic subscriptions were at an end, or were confined to the accumulation of a fund for building, the students could themselves carry on the establishment, and have a surplus of £80 a-year for the wear and tear, and increase, of the apparatus and library; and if their contributions were increased to a pound yearly, which would probably make very little, if any, difference in the numbers of students, an additional £100 would be afforded for the better payment of the lecturers, or, if they continue satisfied, for the establishment of new lectures. This statement is important, as confirming the calculation formerly given, and showing, that, in places where the rich are less liberally inclined than in Edinburgh, the same invaluable establishments may easily be formed and perpetuated, by a judicious encouragement given at first to the mechanics, and without the necessity of relying upon continued assistance from those who first promoted and aided them.*

As nothing can be more useful to the community of that great and enlightened city than the formation of this establishment, so nothing can be more honourable to the inhabitants than the zeal and the harmony with which all ranks have united in conducting it, and all parties among the rich in giving it their support. To Mr. Leonard Horner, in particular, with whom the plan originated, and who has principally had the superintendence of its execution, the most grateful acknowledgments are deservedly due; and I trust I may so far use the privilege of ancient friendship, as to express my conviction that there is no one exertion in which his greatly lamented brother would, had he been preserved to us, have borne a deeper interest, and no object which he would more willingly have seen connected with his name.

The complete success of Dr. Birkbeck's plan, both at Glasgow originally, and afterwards in a place abounding far less with artisans, very naturally suggested the idea of giving its principles a more general diffusion by the only means which seem in this country calculated for universally recommending any scheme—its adoption in London. An Address was published by Messrs Robertson and Hodgkin, in the *Mechanics' Magazine*, October 1823; and the call was answered promptly by Dr. Birkbeck himself, and other friends of education, as well as by the master mechanics and workmen of the metropolis.

* It has been thought proper to vest the management of this institution wholly in the subscribers. Local considerations, of which I cannot pretend to be a judge, may have rendered this necessary; but it seems, according to the most obvious principles, inconsistent with the prosperity and permanence of the plan.

A meeting was held in November; the Mechanics' Institution was formed; a subscription opened; and a set of regulations adopted. Of these, by far the most important, and one which in common, I believe, with all my colleagues, I consider to be altogether essential, provides that the committee of management shall be chosen by the whole students, and consist of at least two-thirds working men. The plan was so speedily carried into execution, that in January Dr. Birkbeck, our President, most appropriately opened the institution with an introductory address to many hundred workmen, crowding from great distances, in the worst season, and after the toils of the day were over, to slake that thirst of knowledge which forms the most glorious characteristic of the age; nor was the voluntary offer of a course of lectures upon Mechanics less appropriate on the part of Professor Millington, who with an honest pride declared to his audience, that he had originally belonged to the same class with themselves. In the course of the year, lectures were delivered by Mr. Phillips on Chemistry, Mr. Dotchin on Geometry, Dr. Birkbeck on Hydrostatics, Mr. Cooper on the application of Chemistry to the Arts, Mr. Newton on Astronomy, Mr. Tatum on Electricity, and Mr. Black on the French language, to great and increasing numbers of workmen. About a thousand now belong to the institution, and pay 20s. a-year. Temporary accommodation has hitherto been provided at the chapel in Monkwell Street, formerly Dr. Lindsey's; and if upon such a subject we might make any account of omens, surely a scheme for the improvement of mankind could not be commenced under happier auspices than in the place which so virtuous and enlightened a friend of his country had once filled with the spirit of genuine philanthropy and universal toleration. But extensive premises have been procured in Southampton Buildings, for the permanent seat of the institution; and the foundation has been laid there of a spacious lecture-room, and other suitable apartments for the library and apparatus. The sum required for these buildings exceeds three thousand pounds; and it has been generously advanced by Dr. Birkbeck. Others have made presents of money, books, and apparatus; and I should mention with greater admiration the gift of a thousand pounds from Sir Francis Burdett, but that those who know him and who mark his conduct, have so long since become accustomed to such acts of wise and splendid benevolence, that they cease to make us wonder. Let me further express my conviction, founded upon information, that the mechanics of this great city are resolved, as they are well able, to perpetuate and extend the system; nor have I a doubt that they will, even if unassisted, erect other institutions in those parts of the town which are too remote to benefit by the parent establishment.

The proceedings in London gave a great and general impulse to the friends of education in the country, and the town of Newcastle-upon-Tyne was the first to profit by it. An institution for the instruction of mechanics by books, lectures, and scientific meetings, was established in March 1824, and the first meeting was held, under the auspices of Mr. Turner, who opened it with an excellent address on the 11th of

May. The members are admitted by ballot; but any person paying 12s. a-year is eligible; and the committee of management consists of the workmen as well as their masters. The library consists already of 600 or 700 volumes. Beside benefactors, there are 240 subscribing members, and the meetings for discussion are held monthly; at these, papers are read and conversations entertained upon any scientific or literary subject, with two exceptions only—*controversial* divinity and *party* politics. A fund is forming for the purchase of apparatus, and lectures will soon be commenced. Mr. Turner, indeed, several years before the establishment of the society, had lectured upon Natural Philosophy to the working classes. The Literary Society which has so long flourished at Newcastle, supported by the rich, must have contributed greatly to the love of knowledge which is now diffusing its blessings among the other classes; and the excellent principle which it adopted of vesting no property or privileges in those who paid a sum by way of admission-money, but extending an equal share in its management and advantages to yearly subscribers, has been strictly acted upon by the founders of the new institution.

It is remarkable that the next example in point of time should be furnished by so inconsiderable a town as Kendal, of not more than 8000 inhabitants; and this instance is the more instructive because it shows how the system may be carried into effect with most limited resources. In April 1824, it was resolved to form a "*Mechanics' and Apprentices' Library and Institute*," of which any person paying to the amount of three guineas in money or books, or 4s. yearly, might become a member, and be eligible as well as vote for the committee of management. There are 150 subscribing members, all of the working classes, beside 50 or 60 by payment for life. The library already amounts to 300 or 400 volumes; and I have a letter before me from the worthy President, Mr. S. Marshall, stating that "the books are nearly all out at a time, such is the ardour for information." Original papers upon subjects of science and literature are read at the quarterly meetings; no topics being excluded from discussion except those of a polemical and party nature. A course of lectures was delivered upon the philosophy of Natural History last autumn, and one on Mechanics will be given this spring; probably one on Chemistry also. "Great delight is stated to have been expressed by the students who attended the lectures." Except that perhaps the meetings are too few, and the yearly subscription lower than might easily be afforded, the plan of this institution is one of the best I have yet seen; and those errors, the last especially, are on the safe side, and may easily be corrected as the want of funds for lectures and apparatus may require, and the pleasure and profit attending a scientific education shall be more and more felt.

The principles upon which this flourishing institution was founded have since been acted upon at Carlisle; and the fundamental one, which on every account is the most steadily to be kept in view, has been wisely recognised by a formal resolution, "that such institutions are likely to be most stable and useful when chiefly conducted by the mechanics themselves;" and by a rule that two-thirds of the commit-

tee, consisting of 21, shall be operative mechanics; the payment of five guineas, and a guinea a-year for seven years, makes a life member; the others pay 8s. a-year, and are admitted by the committee by ballot, and their sons or apprentices have all the benefits of the institution. Above 300 volumes have been collected since November; 155 members have joined the institution; a course of lectures on Natural Science has been delivered by Mr. Nichol; and the workmen, who had attended it with increasing delight, presented him at the close with a silver box, of four guineas value, with twelve pounds inclosed. The secretary, Mr. Dunbar, has been applied to by some good men in Dumfries, for information upon the manner of establishing a similar institution in that town; and I have a confident expectation that the example will be followed by Whitehaven, if not by the smaller towns. In truth, no place is too small for a mechanics' library; and wherever the size will permit, such a beginning is sure to end in a lecture, or at least in some course of private instruction useful to the workmen. The town of Hawick has not above 4000 inhabitants; yet a mechanics' society and library has been established there for some time; and Mr. Wilson, from Edinburgh, went thither in the autumn, and delivered a course of lectures on Natural Philosophy to 200 artisans. Out of the Haddington itinerant libraries there grew a School of Arts in 1821, established by some tradesmen who several years before had formed a society for scientific discussion: and lectures on Mechanics, Chemistry, and the Mathematics, have since been successfully delivered to the workmen by Dr. Lorimer, and Messrs. Gunn and Cunningham. In like manner, the example of Newcastle has been followed at Alnwick, a town of only 5000 inhabitants, where a library and a society have been founded by the exertion chiefly of Mr. Johnston; and I have good reason to believe that the same design is in progress both at Morpeth and Hexham.

The great and wealthy and industrious town of Manchester might well be expected to be among the earliest and most zealous in establishing an institution. This was resolved upon in April, and ample preparations appear to have been made for carrying the plan into execution; £798 had been received before the end of July; of that sum £243 were annual donations; and 191 mechanics had entered their names as subscribers at £1 a-year. A library is forming, and preparations making, I believe, for delivering a course of lectures. The management of the institution, however, is entrusted to directors chosen by and among the honorary members only, and these are persons who either pay ten guineas at entrance, or a guinea a-year, beside the subscription of 20s. It becomes me to speak with great diffidence upon the soundness of views which may have been suggested by local considerations unknown to distant observers; but I cannot avoid expressing my earnest wish that this part of the plan may be reconsidered by the excellent and enlightened men who have promoted so good a work. Perhaps the fact of nearly as many mechanics coming forward to join the societies formed in places like Carlisle and Kendal, upon the opposite principle, as at Manchester,

where the population is at least tenfold, and the pursuits far more congenial, and where I know that 1200 of the *Mechanics' Magazine* were sold the first day it appeared, may give some weight to my anxious but most respectful suggestion.

The *Mechanics' Institution of Leeds* has been lately formed, principally through the exertions of Messrs. Scott and Marshall. Any person recommended by two members is admitted upon paying £2, and 10s. yearly; and any person for 5s. half-yearly is entitled to all its privileges, except that of taking part in the management. Two pounds seem too high for the admission of the workmen as generally as is desirable: a considerable number of them are no doubt members; and as such both vote and are eligible as directors, but the great majority of voters belong to the higher class. A slight change would remove this difficulty. There are 146 members and 136 subscribers already; books of the value of £500 are purchased; and everything is prepared for beginning a lecture, offers of gratuitous assistance having been received. The institution is a very promising one, and the number of ingenious and public-spirited men in that neighbourhood ensures its success, provided no impediment be thrown in the way of a cordial co-operation on the part of the men. The most exemplary spirit of union among men of very different parties in religion and politics has been exhibited; and the liberality of the masters is sure to be duly appreciated by those in their service.

The institutions which I have hitherto mentioned are formed avowedly for lectures as well as reading, and most of them have already been able to establish lectures. Some are by their plan confined to reading, and have not hitherto contemplated any further instruction; but they may easily make the step. That of *Liverpool* deserves the first notice, as being earliest in point of time.

The *Mechanics' and Apprentices' Library at Liverpool*, established in July 1823, chiefly through the exertions of Mr. E. Smith, comes ultimately, if I mistake not, from a very illustrious stock; for it was formed upon the model of the plans which owe their origin to the *Library Company of Philadelphia*, founded by Franklin in 1731, and incorporated in 1742.* In six months, 800 volumes were collected, and 400 readers subscribed; the library is now considerably increased, and there are above 600 readers. The sum paid is two guineas in money or books, for life, or 10s. 6d. a-year; and every person paying either way has the privilege of recommending readers, who receive books on the guarantee of any member. The committee of direction

* Although the remote origin of these institutions may be traced to Franklin, Mr. W. Wood has the high merit of establishing them on their present plan, and adapting them peculiarly to the instruction of mechanics and apprentices. He founded the first at Boston in 1820; he has had the satisfaction of seeing the plan adopted in New York, Philadelphia, Albany, and other towns; and I have now before me a letter in which he says that he has succeeded in forming one at New Orleans, where he was called on business. His plan is to obtain loans or gifts of books, which almost every one has beyond his own wants; and he reckons 30,000 volumes thus obtained in different towns, and as many readers.

is chosen by the whole members, and all are eligible. The method of keeping the different books of receipt, loan, register, guarantee, and catalogue, is admirably contrived for the quick and accurate despatch of business; and is found so successful in practice, that 700 or 800 books are easily exchanged weekly in a very short time; 250 or 300 volumes being received from, and as many given out to, 200 readers in a little more than an hour, without any confusion. Where there is so much to commend, I am unwilling to hint at any imperfection; but certainly a course of lectures might without difficulty be added to this prosperous establishment; and although any mechanic may for half a guinea enjoy all the privileges of a member as the society is now constituted, it is plain that the bulk of the members do not belong to this class, although, on the guarantee and recommendation of members, by permission of the committee they partake of its benefits. If all were admitted to the library and management on somewhat lower terms, or to the library and lectures upon those terms a little raised, and none allowed to partake of either for nothing, there can be no doubt that a greater interest would be excited among them, and the institution be more firmly established and more certain of extending its numbers.

A Mechanics' and Apprentices' Library was instituted at Sheffield in December 1823, and opened in the February following, under the able and zealous superintendence of Mr. Montgomery, a name well known in the literary world, and held in deserved honour by philanthropists. The rules appear to me most excellent. In the workmen is vested the property, in shares of 5s. each paid at first, and they afterwards pay 6s. a-year; they form the class of *proprietors*; the others, the *honorary* members, present gifts in money and books, and may, if chosen by the body at large, fill the offices, but have no share in the property. The committee may consist entirely of proprietors, and must have two-thirds from that body. Apprentices have the use of the books for 4s. yearly. The librarian is to attend daily, and have the care of the property; he is therefore paid: perhaps this might be rendered unnecessary by adopting some of the judicious regulations established at Liverpool, and exchanging the books once a-week. Every donor of a book must write his name in it, as a kind of check; and a rule has been made, as I understand, after a very thorough and somewhat earnest discussion, giving an appeal against the admission of books to the ministers of the different denominations who are subscribers; this rule has, however, never yet been acted upon. Members lose the benefits of the society if in the workhouse or in prison; but are restored when liberated without payment of their arrears. Of this admirable institution there are now 360 members, of whom 310 are proprietors, and the numbers of these increase daily. There are 1400 volumes, including some most liberal donations; all collected in nine months; and thirty apprentices receive the benefits of the society on the terms already stated. A library and philosophical society has long flourished at Sheffield, and now reckons 350 members, almost all manufacturers and tradesmen. Lectures are occasionally given in it; and I rejoice to hear that there is an arrangement in agitation for

admitting the workmen to the benefit of these as soon as the new premises are ready. A letter now before me relates an interesting anecdote for the encouragement of this design. "We have in our employment a common cutler who found leisure in a bad time of trade to amuse himself with entomology, and who has made great progress in arranging a collection of insects for our museum. Another youth in an obscure station is preparing specimens of our Flora for the same. Ingenious mechanical models have been repeatedly brought before us by persons from whom little beyond ordinary handicraft could have been expected." The first two circumstances here mentioned strongly confirm the opinion which I have expressed elsewhere,* and which was grounded on actual observation of Mr. Fellenberg's establishment in Switzerland, that a high degree of intellectual refinement, and a taste for the pleasures of speculation, without any view to a particular employment, may be united with a life of hard labour, even in its most humble branches, and may both prove its solace and its guide.

There are other Mechanics' Institutions, respecting which I have not the details, as the very thriving one at Aberdeen, which has a library of 500 volumes, a valuable apparatus, and a lecture-room for 600 students, where extensive courses on chemical and mechanical science have been delivered. At Norwich a meeting was lately held, and attended by the most respectable inhabitants, of all sects and parties, in order to found a Mechanics' Institution. The zeal and information displayed there, leave no doubt whatever of the plan succeeding. Dr. Yelloly stated that the rules of the London Institution had been communicated by Dr. Birkbeck. The correspondence of our London Institution with different parts of the country shows that similar plans are in contemplation in various other districts of England. It should seem that a little exertion alone is wanting to introduce the system universally; and this is the moment, beyond all doubt, best fitted for the attempt, when wages are good, and the aspect of things peaceful. But if in any part of the kingdom more than another the education of the working classes is of importance, that part surely is Ireland. I have learned, then, with inexpressible satisfaction, that there the system has already been introduced. In Dublin a Mechanics' Institution has been established with the soundest views, the great and cardinal principle being recognised of taking two-thirds of the directors from the body of the workmen. A similar plan has been adopted at Cork; and I have reason to hope that Limerick and Belfast will follow so excellent an example.

To encourage good men in these exertions—to rouse the indifferent, and cheer the desponding, by setting plain facts before them—has been the object of these details. The subject is of such inestimable importance, that no apology is required for anxiously addressing in favour of it all men of enlightened views, who value the real improvement of their fellow-creatures, and the best interests of their country.

* Evidence before the Education Committee, 1818.

We are bound upon this weighty matter to be instant, in season and out of season. I now speak not merely of seminaries for teaching mechanics the principles of natural and mathematical sciences, but of schools where the working classes generally may learn those branches of knowledge which they cannot master by private reading. It must be a small town indeed, where some useful lecture may not, with a little exertion and a little encouragement, be so established, that the quarterly contributions of the students may afterwards suffice to continue it. Moral and political philosophy may be acceptable even where there is no field for teachers of chemistry and mechanics; and where no lecture at all can be supported, a library may be set on foot, and the habit of useful reading encouraged. We constantly hear of public-spirited individuals; of men who are friendly to the poor and the working classes; of liberal-minded persons, anxious for the diffusion of knowledge and the cultivation of intellectual pursuits. But no one has a right to assume such titles—to take credit for both zeal and knowledge—if he has done nothing in his own neighbourhood to found a popular lecture, or, should the circle be too narrow for that, to establish a reading club, which, in many cases, will end in a lecture. For such a club, there is hardly a village in the country too small; and I have shown that towns of a very moderate size may support a lecture. After the success of the experiments already made, indeed, it seems little less than shameful that there should be any considerable town without establishments for popular education. I speak from the actual history of some of the instances which I have cited, when I say that one man only is wanted in each place to ensure the success of the plan. Where there is such a man, and workmen in sufficient numbers—there are all the materials that can be required. He has but to converse with a few master-workmen; to circulate, in concert with them, a notice for a meeting; or if it be deemed better to have no meeting, let them ascertain how many will attend a class; and the room may be hired and the lecturer engaged in a month. The first cost will be easily defrayed by a subscription among the rich; or, if that fail, the collection of a library will be made by degrees out of the money raised by the students. The expense of providing apparatus ought not to deter any one from making the attempt. I have shown how much may be done with but little machinery; and a skilful lecturer can give most useful help to private study, by drawings and explanations, with hardly any experiments at all. The facilities too will increase; the wish for scientific education will beget an effectual demand, and teachers will present themselves to supply the want. Already it would be a safe adventure for a lecturer to engage in, where there are great bodies of artisans. In any of the large manufacturing towns of Lancashire and Yorkshire, a person duly qualified to teach the principles of mechanics and chemistry, and their application to the arts, would now find it easy to collect a large class, willing and able to remunerate him for his trouble; and it is highly probable, that, before long, there will be established, in each of those places, permanent teachers upon private speculation.

But, great as the disposition to learn already is among the working classes, and certain as a lecture would be of attendants wherever it was once set on foot, there is still a necessity for the upper classes coming forward to assist in making the first step. Those seminaries are still too new; they are too little known among the artisans generally to be thought of and demanded by themselves; still more difficult would it be for them to set about forming the plans for themselves. Even in the largest towns, it is hardly to be expected that the workmen should yet concert measures for their own instruction, although sufficiently numerous to require no pecuniary assistance in procuring the necessary teachers. The present, then, is the moment for making an effort to propagate the system; and for giving that encouragement which may at once spread those institutions, and render universally habitual the desire of knowledge that already prevails. Nor can the means be wanting among the upper or even the middle ranks of society. There exist ample funds at present applied to charitable purposes, which at best are wasted, and more frequently employed in doing harm. I speak not now of the large revenue, a million and a half or more from endowments, which is almost altogether expended in a manner injurious to the community; not above a third part belonging to charities connected with education, and of that third by far the greatest portion going to maintain poor children, which is nearly the worst employment of such funds; while of the remaining two-thirds, only a very small proportion is spent on perhaps the only harmless objects of common charity, hospitals for the sick poor, or provision for persons ruined by grievous and sudden calamities. But I allude to the large sums yearly collected in every part of the country to support charitable institutions; and, though given from the best of motives, yet applied to increase the number of the poor almost as certainly as the parish rates themselves. These funds are entirely under the control of the contributors; and to them I would fain address most respectfully a few words.

Every person who has been accustomed to subscribe for the support of what are commonly called charities, should ask himself this question. "However humane the motive, am I doing any real good by so expending my money? or am I not doing more harm than good?" In either case, indeed, harm is done; because, even if the money so applied should do no mischief, yet, if it did no good, harm would be done by the waste. But in order to enable him to answer the question, he must reflect, that no proposition is more undeniably true than this, that the existence of a known and regular provision for the poor, whether in the ordinary form of pensions, doles, gratuities, clothing, firing, &c. or in the shape of maintenance for poor children, in whole, or only in part, as clothing, has the inevitable tendency to bring forward not only as many objects as the provision will maintain, but a far greater number. The immediate consequence of such provisions is to promote idleness and poverty beyond what the funds can relieve: the continued and known existence of the provision trains up a race of paupers; and a provision for children, especially, promotes improvident marriages, and increases the population by the addition of

paupers. It is therefore a sacred duty which every one owes to the community, to refrain from giving contributions to begin such funds; and if he has already become a yearly contributor, it is equally his duty to withdraw his assistance, unless one condition is complied with, namely, that no new objects shall be taken into the establishment, but that those only who at present belong to it shall be maintained; so that the mischief may be terminated within a limited time, and nothing unfair or harsh done towards those who had previously depended on its funds. I remember the time when money given to beggars was supposed to be well bestowed—a notion now exploded; yet even this exercise of benevolence is less mischievous than the support of regular establishments for the increase of paupers.*

The wise and considerate manner of proceeding which I venture to recommend, would speedily place at the disposal of charitable and enlightened individuals ample funds for supporting works of real, because of most useful charity. Let any one cast his eye over the reports of the Education Committee and Charity Commissioners, and he may form some idea of the large funds now profusely squandered under the influence of mistaken benevolence. Of the many examples that might be given, let one suffice; its history is in the Report of 1816. The income was above £2000, of which £1500 arose from yearly subscriptions and donations. This large fund clothed 101 boys, and maintained 65 girls; but the expense of boarding and clothing the girls was of course by far the greatest part of it, perhaps £1200. Much abuse appeared to have crept into the management, in consequence of tradesmen acting as trustees, and voting on the orders to themselves, and on the payment of their own accounts. It was deemed right to check this; and a rule was adopted, at a meeting of trustees, to prevent so scandalous a practice for the future. It was however, rejected at a meeting of the subscribers, for which, in all probability, the tradesmen had made a canvass, and obtained the attendance of friends. Nay, a most learned and humane judge, who was one of the trustees, having afterwards proposed a resolution merely to forbid any trustee or subscriber voting on matters in which he was personally interested, it "was rejected instantly, and therefore not recorded on the minutes;" whereupon his lordship abstained from attending any future meeting, and, I trust, from ever contributing to the fund. This is one instance only of thousands, where the money collected from well-disposed persons, who take no further charge of a charity than to pay their subscriptions, is wasted by the jobbing of too active and interested managers. But suppose there has been no direct abuse, and that all the income had been honestly and carefully employed in promoting the objects of the establishment, by far the greater part of it would have been hurtfully bestowed. Instead of clothing 101 boys, and maintaining 65 girls, at the rate of £2000 a-year, the fixed income alone of £500 might have educated a thousand children, and left £1500 a-year free for establishing other schools, if wanted: and as two others of the

* Letter to Sir S. Romilly, 1818.

same size would in all probability have more than sufficed to supply the defect of education which appears by the report of the West London Lancaster Association to exist in that district, a fund would have remained sufficient to support an institution for the instruction of 700 or 800 mechanics. Thus, the same money which now not uselessly, but perniciously bestowed, might, by a little care and a due portion of steadiness in resisting the interested clamours of persons who subscribe for the purpose of turning it to their own profit, be made the means of at once educating all the children in the worst district of London, and of planting there the light of science among the most useful and industrious class of the community. Now, within the same district, or applicable to it, there are probably other charitable funds, arising from voluntary contribution, to five or six times the amount of this single charity, and it is most likely that there is hardly one of the benevolent individuals who support it but contributes to one or more charities besides. How important, then, does it become for each man carefully to reconsider the use he is making, or suffering others to make, of that money which his humanity has set apart for the relief of his fellow-creatures, and the improvement of their condition; and how serious a duty is it to take care that what originates in the most praiseworthy motives should also end in results really beneficial to the object of his bounty!

I rejoice to think that it is not necessary to close these observations by combating objections to the diffusion of science among the working classes, arising from considerations of a political nature. Happily the time is past and gone when bigots could persuade mankind that the lights of philosophy were to be extinguished as dangerous to religion; and when tyrants could proscribe the instructors of the people as enemies to their power. It is preposterous to imagine that the enlargement of our acquaintance with the laws which regulate the universe, can dispose to unbelief. It may be a cure for superstition—for intolerance it will be the most certain cure; but a pure and true religion has nothing to fear from the greatest expansion which the understanding can receive by the study either of matter or of mind. The more widely science is diffused, the better will the Author of all things be known, and the less will the people be "tossed to and fro by the sleight of men, and cunning craftiness, whereby they lie in wait to deceive." To tyrants, indeed, and bad rulers, the progress of knowledge among the mass of mankind is a just object of terror; it is fatal to them and their designs; they know this by unerring instinct, and unceasingly they dread the light. But they will find it more easy to curse than to extinguish. It is spreading in spite of them, even in those countries where arbitrary power deems itself most secure; and in England, any attempt to check its progress would only bring about the sudden destruction of him who should be insane enough to make it.

To the upper classes of society, then, I would say, that the question no longer is, whether or not the people shall be instructed—for that has been determined long ago, and the decision is irreversible—but whether they shall be well or ill taught—half informed or as tho-

roughly as their circumstances permit and their wants require. Let no one be afraid of the bulk of the community becoming too accomplished for their superiors. Well educated, and even well versed in the most elevated sciences, they assuredly may become; and the worst consequences that can follow to their superiors will be, that to deserve being called their *bettors*, they too must devote themselves more to the pursuit of solid and refined learning; the present public seminaries must be enlarged; and some of the greater cities of the kingdom, especially the metropolis, must not be left destitute of the regular means within themselves of scientific education.

To the working classes I would say, that this is the time when by a great effort they may secure for ever the inestimable blessing of knowledge. Never was the disposition more universal among the rich to lend the requisite assistance for setting in motion the great engines of instruction; but the people must come forward to profit by the opportunity thus afforded, and they must themselves continue the movement once begun. Those who have already started in the pursuit of science, and tasted its sweets, require no exhortation to persevere; but if these pages should fall into the hands of any one at an hour for the first time stolen from his needful rest after his day's work is done, I ask of him to reward me (who have written them for his benefit at the like hours) by saving threepence during the next fortnight, buying with it Franklin's Life, and reading the first page. I am quite sure he will read the rest; I am almost quite sure he will resolve to spend his spare time and money, in gaining those kinds of knowledge which from a printer's boy made that great man the first philosopher, and one of the first statesmen of his age. Few are fitted by nature to go as far as he did, and it is not necessary to lead so perfectly abstemious a life, and to be so rigidly saving of every instant of time. But all may go a good way after him, both in temperance, industry, and knowledge, and no one can tell before he tries how near he may be able to approach him.

ADDRESS

TO THE MEMBERS OF THE

MANCHESTER MECHANICS' INSTITUTION.

JULY 21, 1835.

I AM sure there never were thanks worse earned, or, I may say, more superfluously bestowed, than those which your most worthy president and my respected friend, Mr. Heywood, has just been pleased to return to me for coming here this evening; when I ought really to render my thanks to you for the very high gratification I have received since I came within these walls. I need hardly tell you that I have taken an active, a very humble part certainly, but still a warm interest in the establishment of institutions of this and a similar description,—for this differs from many, in some respects exceeds them, in others perhaps falls short,—and I do assure you that in some particulars this very greatly, or I will say considerably; for one ought not to exaggerate at all even upon occasions like the present of mutual congratulation, but I will say it very considerably exceeds any other in the country, and I believe I know the whole of them which have been created from the year 1824, when they were first established in England, down to the present time. I think that in many important particulars this institution does very considerably excel any other with which I am acquainted, and therefore I may venture to say, any now established. In the first place, it has a great number of constant subscribers and regular attendants; in the next place, it is fully as well lodged as any, and better than any other with one exception, I mean the Institution in London, of which it does not fall short in any material respect. The lecture theatre is somewhat less; but still, as the present assembly shows, it is capable of accommodating without inconvenience a very large number. From a rough estimate I have made in casting my eye around (and I dare say some of these boys we have just heard, are better able to make one than I am), I should say that there are not less present than from 1100 to 1200 persons altogether,—I should guess, from my habit of seeing large numbers of people, that there are from 1150 to 1180 persons present, and yet nobody really feels any inconvenience from so large a body of persons within this space. I have not yet had an opportunity of seeing the

library; but I have run my eye over the catalogue: it seems well chosen, and not inconsiderable in extent and in variety. I believe also that there is apparatus for carrying on different lectures with scientific experiments. But in one particular, and that a most important one, it excels every other institution, with the exception of that in London, and with that it comes on a level,—I mean in the regular attendance of the classes and schools; and with the exception of that one short-coming which I am about to mention presently, the attendance of the schools appears to be excellent, and if the specimen we have had to-night may be taken, I should say it is, as regards the youngest portion of the boys, undoubtedly very superior in point of proficiency. Now, the arithmetic is most perfect; I cannot conceive anything better than the proficiency of the boys generally. I take it for granted that they are selected; I assume them to be the best in the school,—if they were an average it would indeed be very marvellous,—but there were two of those boys than whom none could be more ready calculators; and the bulk of them went through, in a longer or shorter time, the different sums with great ability. I may gather this from my own short experience; for of the many sums there were not above two which I did myself in my own mind as quickly as the bulk: and only one which I did as suddenly as those two boys. They had the benefit of the slates, it is true; but I had greater experience and longer practice. With the exception of one instance, I never knew boys so quick,—and I compare them with exhibitions of a similar nature in our central Borough Road School, and undoubtedly there they do these questions without slates; but I don't say this as a disparagement; for if taught the knack, a boy will learn just as easily to do them without as with the slate, and therefore I lay that out of view. Doing sums as quickly as these boys do with the slate, implies as great an effort of the mind, and must be done as much by a mental process, as if the boys had no slates in their hands. These boys certainly are equal to those very extraordinary exhibitions which every one has lately witnessed in the London Borough Road School. Whether they have gone on equally well in geography I have not had an opportunity of learning. If the time had permitted, I should have liked to see what progress they had made in that important study, which is as entertaining as it is useful. As to the reading it was very good. I can only say that I detected but one error; the boy read "*that which*" instead of "*that which*;" but there was no error in pronunciation, or anything that could indicate that he had fallen into the plan of reading by rote, or did not understand what he was reading.

My great satisfaction is to perceive that these boys are taught to reflect and reason to a certain degree upon what they pass over with their eye, or on what passes through the ear as another reads. That was remarkable in the examination which Mr. McDougall made after the boy had finished reading the page. There are two systems which ought always to be set in view in teaching; shunning the one, setting it up as a beacon to be avoided, and placing the other before you as a light to direct your course into the harbour of knowledge; the parrot

system to be avoided as the rock, the beacon, and the shoal: and the intellectual system, the reasonable, rational system, to be steadily pursued and substituted for the former. And there is no greater error committed than that of those teachers who make a great display of boys' memories, exercising that faculty only, by means of which they may make very accomplished parrots with a great deal of trouble and waste of time; but "quickly come, lightly go;" that which they learn so easily they lose shortly; and even while they retain it, find it of no use whatever; for it does not imbue their mind or penetrate their faculties. I have some reason to believe that it is a shoal which lies peculiarly on the course of teachers by the new, or Lancasterian, or Bell, or national system, called by some the British, and some the Madras system; but whether invented by Bell or Lancaster I stop not to inquire. Both were very great benefactors to mankind; and which invented it, is not very material to our present purpose, as neither is here to take out a patent; but I will call it the New and Cheap system of instruction; and I often find that, as the scholars learn very quickly by it, they are apt to forget as swiftly—nay, that they often learn merely by rote; the consequence of which is, that those at the head of such establishments have of late taken great pains, and I am glad to find most successfully, to avoid that rock. Accordingly, they who go to the Borough Road School, instead of learning by rote, learn by thoroughly understanding the subject; they learn nothing for which they cannot give a reason, of which they cannot render an account, and explain the foundation and principles, as well as execute on the spot and at a call. The consequence of this plan is a true instruction of the right sort; and I mention with pleasure, that these boys appear to be educated by Mr M'Dougall in that course, than which nothing can be more satisfactory.

Having said this, I shall trespass a little further on your patience; and, in consequence of my always dealing with this subject as often as I have an opportunity, I shall offer a few remarks on the shortcoming in this institution to which I have alluded, and which I really think might, in the course of a short time, be supplied. It is far more profitable, on occasions like this, to point out defects than merits. This converts such meetings into the means of improvement, instead of mere ceremonies or excuses for idle speech-making. Now, nothing can be more gratifying than the number of your members, nearly 1400 individuals actually subscribing and placing at the disposal of the directors a fund quite sufficient to bear the current expenses without involving the institution in debt and difficulty; and also to obtain not only an increase from time to time in the library and other parts of the establishment, but the aid of various skilful lecturers. But the next question that arose with me was, of course,—to what class of the community those 1300 or 1400 members belonged; and no doubt I was a little disappointed to find that,—though nothing can be more useful or more important than that those respectable classes, of which the bulk of the community consists, should belong to such an institution, and should gain therefrom the inestimable benefits of knowledge in letters and in

science, and should also reap the pleasure of social intercourse of the most harmless, nay, of the most beneficial character, and thus be kept out of evil habits, and have their intellectual faculties whetted, their industry excited, and their exertions stimulated, by mutual intercourse and social study,—though nothing can be more important than this, and though this will in the end provide a remedy for the defect which I am about to take notice of,—I still cannot avoid feeling that if there was an addition to,—I won't say a body placed instead of, but one added to—the 1400 members of the institution, for I would not have one single individual less of those; but if, in addition to those, there were 200 or 300 to begin with those of another class, of which but a small proportion belongs at present to this institution—I mean artisans and common mechanics of the ingenious and working classes of this town,—I would not have them displace any of those who are now members—there is room enough for all,—but only if they should be added to those superior classes which now belong to the institution, I am sure that the improvement would be prodigious. I hold it to be perfectly certain, that it is the common interest of both masters and men, of both you and me,—of you who belong to the higher industrious class to which I belong, and not to that of common artisans, every one of whom may in this country, by knowledge and skill, rise to the situations which we are in, who are in the same country with them, and running the same race of competition, each in our several branches, and only for the present removed a little in circumstances into an easier station than theirs, they being as capable of obtaining that station themselves,—I say nothing can be more important for them and for us, than that they should learn the knowledge which we have learned, and are still learning and extending. This is of the utmost importance to be impressed upon their minds and yours; it is a lesson which ought never to be erased from their recollection. I have been told—and in saying this, I seek to pay no compliment to Manchester because I happen to be in it—for I would rather speak truths unpalatable than pleasing phrases, things fine to hear but useless to know—but I hear, and I indeed know it of my own knowledge, that in Manchester the artisans, the mechanics, though as honest men, of as independent habits, of as excellent understanding, of as great industry, and in their own arts of as consummate skill, as any human beings in any manufacturing town, or in any other place, be that place what or where it may—yet that they are not sufficiently penetrated and imbued in their minds, dispositions, and tastes, with the love of scientific knowledge and useful learning, to seek opportunities of learning the principles even of those arts in which they are engaged. There are, doubtless, exceptions; great and creditable exceptions this institution itself affords; but they are few in number compared with the great bulk of the industry, intelligence, and skill which exists in Manchester; the others do not flock to this Hall, when its doors are open to receive them all; when, at a very moderate cost, they might reap the benefits of it, and obtain the delights and the advantages of instruction and of social intercourse within its walls. And when I say the advantages of instruction, I am

speaking a plain practical proposition. I am not merely talking of the accomplishment of learning and its pleasures, great though they be, but of the positive utility of it, to each of them in his own separate case. Who, for instance, can doubt that it would be of the greatest use to a common mechanic, engaged in the manufacture of tools and engines, at one of those magnificent establishments with which, at my last visit here, I was so delighted, through the kindness of their excellent owners—who can doubt that it would be of the greatest benefit to the workmen there, and still more to those employed in the manufacture of steam-engines, and various other useful and complicated machinery, in this town—who can doubt that it would be of the utmost possible practical use to them in their several trades, to know the principles upon which those engines are constructed, by becoming acquainted with so much chemistry, for example, as may teach them the nature and properties of steam, of refrigeration and expansion, of the manner in which heat works and cold operates, and learning as much mechanical science as may explain the grounds of the various mechanical contrivances which that engine exhibits? I say it is of positive use and actual profit to them to know these things. At present they put up the cylinder, they fit the piston into its place, and adjust that exquisite contrivance of Watt, the parallel motion; but they do these things mechanically, by rote, and according to the parrot system, which I have lately said a word about in reference to boys. The boys here, indeed, can tell the steps by which they arrive at the answers to the questions given them, and upon that page of reading they could give you reasons and illustrations connected with the various parts which formed the passage which their young neighbour and friend read. But these mechanics know that the rod cannot work sweet and smooth in the cylinder unless perfect perpendicularity be always preserved, and that this perpendicularity is gained and kept by means of a certain combination of iron rods and hinges, which they have learned to call the “parallel motion,” without even knowing why it is so called; and how it operates, and upon what principles that perpendicularity is secured, they have never yet learned; and yet that branch of mechanics, though connected with some refinement certainly, may be brought to the level of the student’s capacity, with little or no mathematical learning. One should think they would be all the better workmen if they knew not only that they were to go on in a certain line, but why they were to do so; that they were not only not to deviate to the one hand or to the other, but why there would be danger if they did. At all events, I say, these things are very just objects of curiosity, and that men might naturally feel desirous to know about the things which they are every day practising. Just in the same way they might naturally desire to know why, upon a certain jet of water being admitted into the cylinder, down comes the piston; how it happens that a vacuum makes it descend, and how the steam pressure from above accelerates the descent. They would surely make it all the better for knowing the principles upon which it acts. And is it not a natural object of curiosity to men whose whole lives are passed in causing this operation,

to inquire upon what principles of science it is that it was invented by one of the most profoundly scientific men that ever lived to adorn this country? I should think that such information would be a pleasant relaxation to the mind in the intervals of labour. Can any one doubt that a dyer would find himself more comfortable if he studied a little of the nature of mordants—if he knew why dyed cloth in certain cases took the colour, and in other cases rejected it—if he knew, for example, upon what principles that ingenious invention of scarlet dyes operated, which was imported into this country by my friend Mr. Thompson, who obtained a patent for it, the invention of an able French chemist? But it is very odd, the operative dyer goes on *dyeing all his life*,—making his arms light blue, and his cloths dark blue, without knowing, any more than the hog that feeds in the trough by his side, the principles upon which his ingenious and useful art is founded. I might run through a variety of instances of the like sort. I take it for granted that no person tries to make optical instruments, even an apprentice, who does not know something of optics; and yet I should be apt to say that those who do not come here do not know much more than enables them to grind glasses into the convex or plano-convex shape that the instrument in hand may happen to require. But would it not be much better if they knew the laws which regulate the dispersion as well as the refraction of light—(of refraction, perhaps, they do know a little)—of the laws which regulate the making of achromatic glasses, so called because they give no colour; of the way in which crown and flint glasses being of several dispersive powers, the action of the one corrects that of the other? And if they also rose a little higher in their views, there would be no harm done—if they ascended so as to discover that the most perfect of all optical instruments, the eye, is formed precisely upon the same principle on which Mr. Dollond formed his first achromatic glasses, and upon which Dr. Blair afterwards suggested an improvement, which, I believe, has never yet been much used in practice. It would be a solace to him, it would strengthen his religious belief, it would make him a better and a happier, as well as a wiser man, if he soared a little into those regions of purer science where happily neither doubt can cloud, nor passion ruffle our serene path.

These things are all so obvious that one really ought to apologize for reminding you of them; but it is not you, it is rather others who are not here, that I would remind through you of these things. They know that I can have no interest but their good, in wishing them to consider what pure and elevated pleasure might be enjoyed by them, if they would come and drink at the fountain of science open to every one here, and seek instruction under its greatest masters. When I say that such knowledge is of practical use, I might go a step further. Those men who are daily employed in handling tools, working amongst the very elements of mechanical science, or always using mixtures of chemical drugs in a mechanical way (I here use the word “mechanical” in its bad sense,—meaning without knowledge, by rote)—those who, making and using pulleys, see that one pulley being

fixed gives no increase of power, but only changes the direction of the force, while another unfixed pulley greatly multiplies the power; but who only see and don't know why it is so, and have their information only by rote,—those men are amongst the very persons whose situation is the best adapted in the whole world for actually making discoveries and inventing improvements. They are in the way of good luck; for there is great luck in even scientific discoveries, and there is more in mechanical inventions; and these men are always in the way of it. They are continually using agents applied to practical purposes; and they have opportunities of striking out new ideas which, for aught they know, may lead to the discoveries of the philosopher, or the improvements and inventions of the mechanician. What did Mr. Watt do more?—(that man to whom we owe the greatest revolution, morally speaking, of modern times,—I mean that which subdued steam to the use of man, by his improvements upon the old engines of Worcester and Newcomen. Far be it from me to undervalue the great step of the vacuum, made by Newcomen; but all was in vain for practical use, till the discoveries of Watt gave a new aspect to the machine. He is therefore the real inventor, and may be said to be the second father, of the steam engine; and it is to him we owe all the wealth, the increased power, and the extended comfort, which we now have from the great engine, which actually annihilates distance between place and place, and, as I yesterday told my friends at Liverpool, brings Manchester, though thirty miles inland, close to its great seaport and outlet, Liverpool. Watt himself was one of that class of workmen which I am now addressing; and if he had gone on making mathematical instruments without ever studying the principles of science upon which they are constructed, he never would have achieved any one of those splendid inventions which gave such celebrity to his name, such fortune to his family (though far from equal to his prodigious deserts), and such an increase to the power and the happiness of mankind. He would have gone on to his grave working at the rate of 30s. or 40s. a-week, without ever having raised his own name, or adorned his species, or improved the condition of mankind, in the marvellous manner, and to the boundless extent, which he was enabled to do, solely by his scientific education and philosophic studies. Why, then, I place Watt as a model before all working mechanics. They may not have his genius, but they may all have as much industry as he had, and gain as much learning. It is their own fault, therefore, if they don't rise out of their level, and obtain the chances of making discoveries which would secure them the gifts of affluence, and bestow on them a share in the greatest glory at which man can arrive, the renown of extending the boundaries of science and art. Totally independent of that, they might be much happier men, much more useful men, and much more profitable workmen, both for themselves and others. And, after all, what sacrifice would they make for it? Why, men receiving 30s., 35s., or 40s. a-week, would have to sacrifice how much? Not 6d. a-week, for the subscription is only 20s. a-year, to obtain all the benefits, and

reap all the enjoyments, of this excellent institution. Suppose it were even 26s. a-year, or 6d. a-week, why it is only that they should consume so much less beer or meat, and the diminution is so little in amount, that they would hardly feel at the week's end that they had made the sacrifice. I know they ought to do a great deal more than that; and unless they do it, I also know they can never be the happy men which their talents and skill, and the prosperous and flourishing situation of this great city, entitle them to be. If they, with large wages, have not learned another lesson, beside saving sixpence a-week for learning, they have but learned half their duties. They ought to do as we lawyers, physicians, and others have always to do; they ought to lay by for a bad day. I know that this is not a very popular doctrine; but if they do not hear it and practise it, they won't be very respectable men. Every man is bound to do so as a bare act of justice to himself, and to make him an independent man, without which he does not deserve to be called a man at all, much less the citizen of a free state. He ought to look to himself and his savings, and not trust to that most odious, mean, and despicable of resources, the parish fund, in case of a bad day.

Suppose when I was at the bar, toiling my way up, as you are doing now, to independence, that I had lived up to every farthing of my income, as these men spend their 40s. a-week—I speak of some of them only who spend the whole of the 40s. they earn every week, and never have anything in case of a fall of wages, or being thrown out of employment, or sickness—if I, or those whom I used to associate with at the bar, had done that—then there comes a broken limb or a bad season for business, when people are wiser than they generally are, and therefore don't go to law—or when they are poorer, and cannot afford that very expensive luxury—supposing a person is ill for six months; what is he to do? All men of business know that it is their bounden duty to lay by for such accidents, from which the ablest, best, and strongest men are not at all exempt. And why should these workmen not do the same thing? But I have been drawn from my course by this important subject. From the nature of this place, one is apt to get lecturing a little, and I was lecturing upon the propriety of laying by only 4d. or 6d. a-week, for the purpose of possessing the benefits of this admirable, useful, and most gratifying institution.

I can conceive people having some excuse elsewhere for not coming to lectures and enjoying them; but when I hear so admirable a report as was made to-night by your worthy and able secretary, when it appears that you have not only those able men by whose advice the workmen flocking hither might benefit, but when you have such lecturers as those whose names we have heard to-night—when, above all, there is in this very town, at this moment, happily preserved to us—and I hope to God he long may be—the very greatest chemical philosopher of the present day—known all over Europe and all over the world—I mean Dr. Dalton—why, what a proof is here how people neglect things within their power, and which they would be

grasping at and panting after, if they were but removed beyond their reach! I met an old and worthy friend of mine, a man of great ability and learning also, your townsman, Dr. Henry, to-day. We were fellow collegians, and learned chemistry together—though God wot he learned a great deal more than I did; and we both agreed, while conversing at Mr. Heywood's, that nothing had given each of us so much pleasure (both had often thought of the same thing, and we communicated our sentiments upon meeting), as the happy circumstance of having lived in time to attend the course of lectures given by the greatest improver of chemistry in his day, I mean Dr. Black, the discoverer of latent heat, of fixed air, of the nature of the mild and the caustic earths, as connected with that air's absorption, and who may literally be said to be the father of modern pneumatic chemistry. We had the happiness of drinking in our knowledge of chemistry at that pure and exalted source, by attending the last lectures of that great man.

Now, suppose anybody had told us when we got to Edinburgh (I lived there, but Dr. Henry came from a distance), "Oh, you are a year too late. If you had only come the year before, you would have been in time to hear the last course of lectures impressively and gracefully delivered, by that great man. We should have wrung our hands and declared that we could not tell that; that we did not know he was so old; that we would have given up any engagement, made any sacrifice, to have heard him. But suppose that we had lived in the same town to the age of thirty, and had never thought of going to Dr. Black; suppose that he in the course of nature had paid its debt and died, and that we had then read the life of Dr. Black, as the great ornament of the city of Edinburgh, as the most illustrious chemical philosopher of his day, as the founder of the new system of chemistry, as a man whose discoveries had altered the face of the scientific world in that great department of knowledge; we should have said, "Bless us, is it possible that we should have lived ten or fifteen years here since we reached the age of discretion, and never have thought of going to that man's class,—never have thought of paying our two or three guineas for the benefit, nay the glory of learning under that most illustrious of all chemists?" We should certainly have been extremely to blame, very much to be pitied, not a little to be despised, for having allowed so many years to pass, with the doors of the lecture-room open to us, and yet never hearing this celebrated philosophical teacher. There is now living in this town, and, from his love of science, volunteering to give five or six lectures in the course of the season, a chemical philosopher who has made the greatest discovery since the decomposition of the fixed alkalies, and which in all likelihood will be the root of still greater discoveries in chemical science, enabling us, as I firmly believe, to trace the connecting links in that chain which separates the mechanical from the chemical kingdom of science, and supplying that long wanted desideratum of the step which unites the two,—we have that very individual existing, lecturing, in this place; and in the course of time—(distant may the change be!)—

he must cease to lecture and to exist. I don't believe there will be one man who has failed to avail himself of the opportunity of hearing the lectures of that eminent philosopher and discoverer, who will not then upbraid and despise himself, and feel a kind of remorse at the sin of omission he will have been guilty of. Gracious me! to have lived in this town, and never gone to hear the principles of chemistry explained by the great discoverer of Definite Proportions! That is the sort of feeling which a person will excite in others; and, if he is worthy of being compassionated, it is the sort of feeling that will arise in his own breast, upon making the humbling reflection when it is too late. In this matter I at least wash my hands of all blame; and no one will have any ground for saying I did not give him timely warning. Now, my observations are addressed not merely to the mechanics who don't come and learn these things, and who might by their coming extend our numbers—(I call it "our," for we are all engaged in the same common cause)—who do not avail themselves of such precious opportunities; but I would remind you also, and others through you, that those things which I have mentioned, because they appear to be suited to the present occasion, ought to sink deep into the minds of the considerate and right-thinking of all classes.

I am sure I should do a very useless thing, if I were here to enlarge upon the benefits of Education. They are admitted by all, even by those who formerly sneered at them. Some people tell us "that education won't fill people's bellies," and trash of that sort. Why, they might just as well complain of the baker or the butcher, because with their beef or bread they don't fill people's minds. But every one knows that "man lives not by bread alone,"—that knowledge leads to skill, that skill leads to useful and lucrative occupation, and that the gain derived from lucrative occupation enables men to get the staff of this mortal life, after getting the staff of that immortal life which improves and strengthens his better part—his mind. Therefore it is not true to say that learning does not fill people's bellies, as some grossly and stupidly say; for it puts the staff of common animal life within our reach; so the bread and beef got through its means ultimately tend to support the mind, inasmuch as, without the support of the animal part, the incorporeal portion of our nature would have but a small chance of surviving. But now, whatever improves men's minds tends to give them sober and virtuous habits; and with the knowledge of the community, clear I am that virtue is assuredly certain to be promoted; and I am quite confident that, with the knowledge of men, the rights of men—I mean their indefeasible rights of every kind, the rights which they have to civil liberty and to religious liberty, the greatest of earthly and social blessings,—are sure to be infinitely promoted; nor do I know of any more certain mode of reforming a country, any better way of redressing her grievances, than giving education to her people. I know that I am now addressing myself to those who hold various opinions on these matters, to some who differ from me in opinion. I have my own opinions; they have theirs; I shall certainly not give up mine; they may keep theirs; perhaps

they may come round in time to mine; unless I am favoured with some new light I assuredly won't go to them; but I say that all political, or, to avoid the use of the word politics, all social reforms, are never so sure to be obtained, and never so safely obtained, as when the people amongst whom they are in vogue, and bear a high price, with whom they are in great estimation and much pursuit,—as when that people is well educated; because the better educated a people are in all their branches, so much the more tranquil, peaceful, and orderly, in their political conduct will they be. But I am not one of those who preach in favour of people being contented when they ought not to be contented. When they have grievances they ought to be discontented, and their discontent ought to boil as high as the law will allow,—not to explosive heat (to speak the language of the engineer), but higher than temperate heat, in order to make their grievances attended to, and so get them redressed. That is my doctrine. And when not redressed, the heat should increase, but always keeping under the regulation of the *governor*, if I may so speak—always under the control of the law, which is the governor,—and the governor being affected in the engine, as you know, by the heat below, even so the law is apt to be affected and made to give way and yield to the pressure of just demands acting upon it; and as the heat in the engine, acting through the steam on the governor, communicates to it a centrifugal force, which again, when much augmented, compresses the vapour below, so by the moral law does the governor affect the people, while he is in his turn very much affected by the people. Therefore, when I preach up contentment, it is only where the people ought to be contented, by being ruled as cheap as possible, and as well as possible; but this I always shall hold, that their discontent should never exceed the bounds allowed by law. They should be firm, persevering, temperate, for their own sakes rather than for the sake of others, and should go on towards their own purpose, neither looking to the right, neither to the left, till that legitimate purpose be accomplished. But the more knowing they are, the more peaceable they will be; and, in my judgment, the more clear-sighted they are upon the subject of their rights, the more steadily will they perform their duties.

One word more before I release you from what I have called this lecture of mine—one word upon the manner in which learning and improvement make their way in society. I think it must be admitted that it is always in one way, and that downwards. You begin by making the upper classes aware of the value of certain kinds of knowledge; and though it constantly happens that the middle classes know a great deal more than their superiors, yet it is by the upper part of the middle class becoming aware of the exquisite pleasures of learning, and, above all, of scientific information, that the other parts of this class become impregnated with the same divine influence. Well, then, we teach, we impregnate this stratum, if I may so call it—for society is something like a pyramid, having an extensive base and tapering upwards—the middle parts of the middle class get well

acquainted with the subject and feel its importance; every now and then there springs up an enlightened individual who says, "I have a good mind to endeavour to make this knowledge spread among the people below me who know less than I do," and by degrees he succeeds in this truly benevolent and philanthropic design. For I stop to observe that a man is not a philanthropist who throws away his money upon useless charity to multiply idlers in the land: he is truly a philanthropist, he is truly charitable, who gives his money in such a way as to prevent his fellow-creatures from wanting charity, from being reduced to the pitiable necessity of asking alms. A man who makes war upon the poor-house by keeping people out of it, he is a charitable man; a man who makes war upon the gin-shop by teaching people that sobriety and knowledge are better than intoxication and ignorance—a man who makes war upon the "rabble rout" of seditious, immoral, and licentious persons, by reclaiming them from their evil habits, and improving them by early education, especially by planting infants' schools—he is a truly charitable man. And above all, a man who has bestowed his money, his time, and his exertions so as to make war upon the gaol, the gibbet, the transport-ship and the tread-mill, by lessening through instruction the number of victims sent for their crimes to these places—that man is indeed charitable; and the more he teaches his fellow-creatures, and refines their appetites, and removes them from low, sensual gratifications, the more charitable is that man. Therefore have I stopped to say what man is charitable—not he who gives alms, or who subscribes to charities for the purpose of seeing his name enrolled among their benefactors, but such a man as I have depicted, one who not only is benevolent, but beneficent—one who both means well, and does good. Of such, then; there are many in the second order or stratum of the middle classes; and they try, by their exertions and their money, kindly applied and judiciously bestowed, to spread to the class below them, a little of the same feeling, the same love of learning, which they possess themselves; and so that lower class gets by degrees impregnated itself. Thus it goes to the class immediately below it, to the artisans, the skilful workmen, the class as respectable as any in the community from the duke down to the peasant. They might know a great deal more than they do; they soon will know a great deal more than they now do. Well, they get the suggestions of those immediately above them. We, for instance, in this institution, can operate upon them; and upon them it is our bounden duty, in my opinion, to operate till we carry them on in the course of knowledge, and impregnate them with that love of knowledge which is germane to this stratum and class above all others, and through this class, I hope, it will spread downwards till it reaches the very lowest description of the community. Then those very men, the artisans, we shall see endeavouring to instruct the common daily field labourers, a class a thousand times lower in mental rank than skilful artisans, as for instance optical instrument makers—infinitely inferior in all respects as to station and everything else—much more the inferiors of the artisan than that artisan is of the

proudest peer in the land. Those artisans having slaked their thirst at the fountain of knowledge, opened here by the lectures, by the library, and by social intercourse amongst the members—having tasted the pleasures and gained the advantages of science, will endeavour even to become in their turn teachers, and to carry those benefits and lights and enjoyments into the humblest class of the community, which now sits in the thickest darkness.

I ought to apologize for having detained you so long; but as you all know my motives, I can only express my great desire and readiness in any way to promote the interest of this admirable and now most flourishing institution. I have just cast my eye upon a page of the report which reminds me that there was a course of lectures upon political economy, which I was the means of procuring for you last season, and though in the report it is not stated that they were my lectures, it is mentioned so ambiguously, that you may very likely think I had written them and given you a copy. The real fact is, I did no such thing. I did not write one lecture of the whole number. They were written by a friend, whose name I am not at liberty to mention. What I did was to go carefully over them, to alter some parts, and here and there to add a sentence where I thought the meaning was not sufficiently brought out; and I believe all I wrote of them would go into less than five pages. The lectures were prepared at a time when I held the great seal, and therefore I could not give more attention than what was required slightly to correct them. It is no doubt true that I formerly recommended the plan of what I called anonymous lecturing. In 1824, the year the Mechanics' Institution was established in London, I was aware of the difficulty of obtaining lecturers, and also aware how much lectures might be made available, provided we had them of a perfectly simple, intelligible, and plain description, containing the elements of science laid down in a way that would readily be comprehended by uneducated men. All that then was wanted was a good and distinct reader; and the plan I proposed at the time was this:—That lectures should be prepared, and that the first should be read on one day, and on the next meeting of the class the same lecture should be read a second time, together with half the second lecture, and then the following meeting that half a second time, with the latter half of the same lecture: so that every lecture was read twice, giving the artisans time for discussion during the interval; and when their minds were whetted by such discussion, it was repeated, and they also learned another bit. In those days we wanted lecturers; so that it was necessary the lectures should be made plain enough to be given to any one who could merely read. Now we have a better supply, for these institutions have created not only a demand for lectures, but have also created lecturers, because many of those who have been taught in these institutions are now ready to become teachers. And no fruit which they have borne is more satisfactory to my mind than this. When I disclaim the authorship of those able lectures on political economy, I do so only to renounce the credit which is not mine, and with no wish to undervalue the useful labours

of those who prepare lectures for the people. I have worked at this myself. In 1825 I devoted the summer to preparing a course of lectures, which have been delivered ever since, many times over, in different parts of the kingdom, more in the south than in the north; and no person I dare say knew who was the author; nor do I intend to make it known. I don't think I have ever mentioned the circumstance before, and I do it now as a proof of the advantage of "anonymous lecturing." It has this great recommendation, that several persons may join in preparing a course, at a small trouble to each, every person contributing a lecture or two, if he cannot write a whole course. We are now going on in the same plan with various courses. I am taking part myself by preparing one course of twenty-four lectures: and I suppose that some of these courses will be ready for delivery in three months. I don't mention who are the writers, nor what are the subjects, because it is my intention the authors should not be known; but they will be ready for delivery under the patronage some of one useful society and some of another, in order to give them greater currency. I have explained this for the purpose of adding, that if it should be your pleasure to benefit by this arrangement, in consequence of any want of lectures here, upon any of those subjects which are now in preparation, I hope and indeed think I shall have it in my power to help this institution to those particular courses.

I beg leave once more to return you my best acknowledgments for the very kind reception I have met with amongst my fellow-citizens in this great town, and in this institution particularly; and I shall have great pleasure in reporting to my coadjutors the prosperity of this institution, especially to Dr. Birkbeck—to whom more is due than to all the rest of us together—who first devised the plan of giving lectures to artisans in the year 1800, at Glasgow—(I have the prospectus in my possession of his first course)—a plan which was afterwards carried into execution in various parts of the kingdom; he was also, I think, the originator of the London Institution, though he had most able coadjutors, and I know his priority in this has been disputed; but at any rate he advanced in its aid £4000 or £5000, which I am sorry to say he is not nearly repaid at this moment.—I shall have the utmost satisfaction in telling him how this institution beats our London one in many important particulars, and that there are only one or two points in which it falls short. I know that nothing will give him greater satisfaction than to hear from me that the child has outstripped the parent.

S P E E C H

ON THE

EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE.

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

MAY 23, 1835.

IN conformity with the notice which I gave some time ago, I now rise to submit certain resolutions to your lordships, on a subject the importance of which one universal opinion confesses, although there may prevail a difference of sentiments regarding the course fittest to be pursued for attaining the end that all have alike in view. In calling the attention of the House to a matter of such deep and universal interest, both to the governors and governed of this and every other country, I feel that I need hardly preface my observations with any apology, or bespeak your attention to a topic so nearly affecting the welfare, and indeed the safety, of the community at large. I have the misfortune, it is true—and I have always felt it a misfortune—to differ from a large, at least a decided majority of those whom I have the honour of addressing, in political principles, and in the feelings which these engender upon most things connected with the management of public affairs. I entertain my own conscientious opinions, which are the same I ever held, and ever acted upon. Your lordships entertain your own, and will allow me to keep mine, as I find no fault with you for retaining yours; but I certainly do feel, that whoever, standing in this position, whether as a Peer of Parliament, or as a member of the other Assembly, undertakes to bring forward a subject like the present, has a difficult task imposed upon him. He makes himself the advocate of measures, which ought to be kept free from all admixture of party feeling—apart from all the disturbing forces of political animosity—measures in which, as all parties have the same stake, so none ought to interfere with any sectarian or factious view, but to consider their merits upon the most enlarged principles, and with the most inflexible resolution to consult only the true interest of the country and of mankind.

Why, then, it may be asked, am I apprehensive of this great and

common cause suffering in my hands from party dissensions? It is because I fear lest some of your lordships may think more of the advocate than of the question—more of his politics than of its merits. I know there are those who will not listen so readily to the claims of any subject, as they will consider the character and habits—I mean the political character and habits—of him who introduces it. I know that there be those who are rather moved (if I may speak the language of my profession) by the wrongs of persons, than by the rights of things; and unless your lordships shall be convinced that this subject of popular education is in itself worthy your serious attention—unless I can make you fully aware of all its details, so as to conciliate your favour towards the things required for its full establishment—I may be doing mischief to that cause the progress of which it has been the great object of my life to advance. Yet, assuredly, the situation in which I here stand, is anything less than novel to me. I have never stood at any period of my public life, either in this or the other House of Parliament, otherwise than as the member of a minority, generally a minority inconsiderable in numerical force. I have always had a preponderating, often an overpowering, majority of my fellow-members opposed to me in either House, even while a minister of the crown; nor was it until I had left the Commons, that my colleagues knew what it was to sway the voices of that assembly, while I only exchanged an adverse majority of Commoners for a hostile majority of Peers. Yet it has been my good fortune to succeed in obtaining the assent of both Houses to many measures of paramount importance, at first propounded to unwilling audiences, rudely crossed by the influence of some, coldly supported by the flagging zeal of others, persevered in with the aid of the country, and backed by the force of reason, till in time the feeble minority swelled into all but the unanimous voice of Parliament, as of the people. These recollections encourage me now to face the preponderance of my political adversaries, and give me hopes of a like success in my present endeavours.

Having detained your lordships for a few moments with adverting to what I deemed not unimportant, I shall now come at once to the details of the subject which I wish to press upon the attention of the House. I shall first of all explain why I deem it to be inexpedient to bring forward for the consideration of Parliament, that which many of the warmest friends of universal education, with the best intentions; though I think through mistaken views, are partial to; I mean a general bill for the establishment of parish schools at the public expense, and under public regulation. I am very decidedly against any such measure, and I shall now shortly explain why I am against it. But as the opinion to which I now refer is entertained, though by a most respectable class, yet not by a numerous class of persons, I should not feel justified in entering upon details to show why I differ from them, were it not that at one and the same time I shall be laying before your lordships the present state of popular education in this country.

In the year 1818, the labours of the Education Committee of the House of Commons—labours to which no man can attach too high a

value—were made the subject of great controversy—a controversy as fierce and uncompromising as almost any that ever raged, and to which I only refer as affording another reason for the hope I so fondly cherish, that though now, perhaps, in a minority upon this, as upon many other questions here debated, I yet may ultimately find myself with scarcely an antagonist. That bitter controversy is at an end—the heats which it kindled are extinguished—the matter that engendered those heats, finds equal acceptance with all parties. Those are now still, or assenting, or even supporting me, who then thought that I was sowing broadcast the seeds of revolution, and who scrupled not to accuse me as aiming at the “dictatorship,” by undermining the foundations of all property. Those who once held that the Education Committee was pulling down the church, by pulling down the universities and the great schools—that my only design could be to raise some strange edifice of power upon the ruins of all our institutions, ecclesiastical and civil—have long ceased to utter even a whisper against whatever was then accomplished, and have become my active coadjutors almost ever since. Nay, the very history of that fierce contention is forgotten. There are few now aware of a controversy having ever existed, which, a few years back, agitated all men all over the country; and the measures I then propounded among revilings and execrations, have long since become the law of the land. I doubt, whether, at this moment, there are above some half-dozen of your lordships who recollect anything about a warfare which for months raged with unabated fury both within the walls of the universities and without—which seemed to absorb all men’s attention, and to make one class apprehend the utter destruction of our political system, while it filled others with alarm lest a stop should be put to the advancement of the human mind. That all those violent animosities should have passed away, and all those alarms be now sunk in oblivion, affords a memorable instance of the strange aberrations—I will not say of public opinion, but—of party feeling, in which the history of controversy so largely abounds. I have chiefly dwelt upon it to show why I again trust that I may outlive the storms which still are gathering round those who devote themselves rather to the improvement of their fellow-creatures than the service of a faction.

In those days, then, the Education Committee, by inquiries instituted respecting all the parishes of this island, obtained a full account of the means of instruction existing in each. The result of the whole was, as regarded England and Wales, that independent of Sunday-schools—which for the present I shall lay on one side—there were of day-schools, endowed and unendowed, about 18,500, actually educating, during six days in the week, 644,000 children—that of this number 166,000 were educated at endowed schools, and 478,000 at unendowed schools, schools supported entirely by voluntary contributions, or by the payments received from scholars. The number of endowed schools was above 4100—of unendowed, about 14,300. The former number of endowed schools, and their scholars, is of course nearly fixed—the latter, of unendowed, is that which varies

from time to time: therefore take only the variable number of 478,000, those educated at unendowed day-schools, and then consider what progress has been made in them since 1818; a progress partly owing to the exertions of private benevolence, but in part, too, achieved by the exertion of the poorer classes themselves; for it is a circumstance on which I dwell with the greatest pride and pleasure, that of the 478,000 taught in unendowed schools, 310,000 paid for their tuition, and 168,000 only were free scholars; and even taking in the endowed schools, of the 644,000 taught, 320,000, or one-half of the whole, paid for their schooling.

Now, when I said I should lay on one side the education in Sunday-schools, it was not from undervaluing those excellent institutions, or because the details relating to them are unimportant, but because of the limited nature of that kind of education, and the necessarily inferior advantages which alone it can bestow; for while one day in the week is very little towards the purposes of instruction, it is still less towards the benefits, the far more important benefits, of moral discipline. It is evidently not merely the teaching of reading, writing, and ciphering, that profits the child; the regular school attendance is far more material for his improvement. Six days in the week, at six hours in the day, is a vast advantage in this training; but a single day, for three or four hours, although it does something by keeping the child out of harm's way, is yet, comparatively speaking, insignificant as moral training—as forming the invaluable habits of order, industry, and good behaviour. I desire to be understood that I say nothing against Sunday-schools, or against those excellent individuals who patronize them, and who devote so much of the day of rest to teaching in them. It is not because I value them less, but because I prize the others more—those schools in which the whole time of the child is spent under the master's eye—that I have said nothing of the numbers taught on Sundays. There is, indeed, another reason for keeping those numbers out of our calculation; we have no means of knowing what proportion of the children attend the Sunday-schools alone, and how many attend both the Sunday and the day-schools. Thus there were in 1818, as I have already said, 644,000 children attending day-schools, and 452,000 was the number of children attending 5100 Sunday-schools; but those two sums must not be added together, by way of finding how many children in the whole received any instruction. I believe that at least three-fourths, if not four-fifths, of the one class belong also to the other. I have, therefore, thought it better, for these reasons, to institute the comparison between the present and the former amount of education, by attending only to that which forms its great branch—the number of children attending day-schools.

Let us then see whether the number of 478,000 children attending unendowed day-schools, in 1818, has increased, or remained stationary, or fallen off? Ten years after the dissolution of the Education Committee—that is, in 1828—a great measure was carried in the other House of Parliament, chiefly by the exertions of a noble friend

of mine, Lord John Russell—I mean the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts. As the invidious distinctions which those laws formerly created between churchmen and sectarians, had chiefly prevented their cordially co-operating together for planting schools, this appeared to me a favourable moment for bringing them into one plan of exertion, and for calling on them all to aid in the great work of education. Preparatory to any such attempt, I took the liberty of addressing 700 or 800 circulars to the clergymen of as many different parishes. I had no authority to do so; but trusting to their courtesy, and recollecting the good-will with which the working clergy had helped my inquiries in 1818, I asked for an answer to the queries contained in those circulars, respecting the state of education among their several flocks. I received answers to 487, which was one-twenty-first part of the parishes of England. That must be admitted to be a small number, comparatively; but still it appeared to me sufficient to ground a calculation upon. I had taken the parishes indifferently—so many in each county—and I had taken them at random; but from three classes, large parishes, middling parishes, and small parishes;—and I had also taken them indiscriminately from town and country, and from towns of different sizes—and I conceived that the answers given to these 487 circulars would lay a sufficient ground for drawing a conclusion, and forming an average, for the whole kingdom. The result was this: I found that there had been 50,000 children educated in those 487 parishes in 1818, according to the accurate tables then formed by the committee, and given in the Digest; while the number in 1828 amounted to 105,000, or five per cent. (on the larger number) more than double;—so that, if that calculation were correct, the number of children educated in unendowed schools had considerably more than doubled during those ten years. When I stated from this calculation my confident belief that the whole number of children educated in England had increased in the same proportion; so that where there had been 478,000, there ought now to be between 1,000,000 and 1,100,000, I spoke in the confident expectation that the returns for the whole parishes of England and Wales would amply prove my calculation to be correct. But I cannot help pausing for a moment to add, that I entertained this opinion, not alone certainly, but in company with only a few of those with whom I acted. There was a great and almost universal outcry against the correctness of the reasoning and the sufficiency of the data, and reverend clergymen, and learned professors, and expert calculators—but not experienced men—were loud in their objections. For it was said that the number of parishes from which I had received answers, was but a small proportion of the 11,403 parishes in the whole country; and that, in the remaining 10,900 parishes, there was no reason why education might not have remained stationary, or have gone back. It was in vain I urged, that these 487 parishes, thus taken at random, would furnish something like an average for the whole;—in vain I foretold that, if the whole returns were made, my calculations would prove correct—nay, that they must prove correct,

unless a miracle had been wrought to effect what nothing else could accomplish, the progression of education in 487 parishes, taken at random, while all was stationary, or retrograde movement, in all the others. Well, the motion of a noble and esteemed friend of mine in the other House of Parliament, Lord Kerry, has now produced those fuller returns; they have been classed and digested in great part; and I am now in a condition to show, not upon 487 parishes, but upon the whole parishes of thirty-three counties, from Bedfordshire to Suffolk, alphabetically, inclusive, containing 10,110,000 souls, and consequently greatly more than two-thirds of the whole country—that my computation was perfectly accurate, and that I had framed it on sufficient data. I shall not trouble your lordships with the figures in detail, but give the results at once; and you will then see how far my prediction is verified. In those thirty-three counties, which include Lancashire and Middlesex—two counties containing a population of about 2,700,000, but the whole thirty-three containing 10,110,000—the results are, indeed, most satisfactory. Assuming, as we most clearly may, that the rest of the country has now the same proportion of scholars and schools, the result is, that instead of the 478,000 attending the unendowed day-schools in the year 1818, having increased, as I had anticipated, to above 1,000,000, they have increased to 1,144,000, and the number of schools is increased from 14,000 to 31,000. This is not only not under my calculation, but is considerably above it; and the excess is owing plainly to the progress made since 1828.

I shall not detain your lordships further on this point than to observe, that the great increase in the endowed schools and scholars has not been attended with a corresponding increase in the children receiving instruction at the endowed schools. On the contrary, these have fallen off in numbers, from 166,000 to 150,000; a fact which—considering the introduction of the new method, the Bell and Lancaster plan, into many of those foundations—gives rise to serious reflections. Such, however, is the present amount of daily instruction. In all kinds of schools, it is given to about 1,300,000 children, without any interposition of the government, or public authorities. And surely this leads to the irresistible conclusion, that, where we have such a number of schools and such means of education furnished by the parents themselves from their own earnings, and by the contributions of well-disposed individuals in aid of those whose earnings are insufficient, it behoves us to take the greatest care how we interfere with a system which prospers so well of itself; to think well, and long, and anxiously, and with all circumspection and all foresight, before we thrust our hands into a machinery which is now in such a steady, constant, and rapid movement; for if we do so in the least degree incautiously, we may occasion ourselves no little mischief, and may stop that movement which it is our wish to accelerate. I know well the difficulties of maintaining the continuance of subscriptions first begun on occasions of public spirit excited, and beneficent zeal aroused. I know well—as do all men who have bestirred themselves, how little soever, with the purpose of benefiting their fellow-citizens—that nothing can be

more perilous than to give contributors an opportunity of saying, what some will feel, and others will be ready to urge—"We need not subscribe any more, for the government, or the country, or the parish, has stepped in to educate the people, and will now maintain our institution." Let the tax-gatherer, or the county-assessor, or the parish-collector, but once go his rounds for a school-rate, and I will answer for it, that the voluntary assistance of men, in themselves benevolent, and, indeed, munificent, instead of increasing, will soon vanish away; that the 1,144,000 now educated at endowed schools, will speedily fall down to almost nothing, and that the adoption of such a fatal and heedless course will sweep away those establishments which, at present, reflect so much honour on the community, which do so much good, and are calculated, with judicious management, to do so much more. Add to this, that in many parts of the country—and those the very districts where the people want instruction most—they are by no means anxious for it, nor very eager to send their children to school. Those persons who found and support schools, are of infinite use in encouraging the poor to benefit by their exertions; and all this useful engine of improvement would be destroyed, if the affair of education once were made a parish concern.

I need not dwell longer on this point. The error has arisen from only regarding the Scotch Parish-school Law, which, having worked so well in one country, is expected to produce as good effects here. But a century and a half ago, when there was hardly a school in Scotland, it was of incalculable importance to plant one in each parish, because this occasioned many others to be voluntarily established, and could interfere with no individual exertions then making, and no schools already existing. Who does not see that this is not the case of England at the present day, when we have already nearly as many schools and children taught in proportion to the population, without any compulsory provision, as Scotland had in 1818, after the Act of William and Mary had been in operation 130 years?

The ground of the Education Committee, in 1818, favouring the establishment of parish schools by law, was the apprehension that the means of instruction afforded by voluntary contribution might prove occasional and temporary; that there was still a great deficiency; and that, instead of this being supplied, the existing schools might be suffered to decay. The experience of the ten years next ensuing, and of the six which followed those ten years, appears sufficiently decisive to remove such an apprehension; and we have now a right to conclude against any general interference of the legislature, until the efforts of individuals shall be found to be insufficient, and the seminaries which they have established shall be seen going to decay.

While, however, I am (upon the grounds which I have stated) clearly of opinion that no general measure of interference should be adopted, I am very far from saying that nothing yet remains for the government to do. We are remote, indeed, from the condition in which we can say that everything is as well as possible for public instruction,—that all is on the best footing in those schools,—that there

is a sufficient supply of them,—and that the legislature and the government have no duty to perform in connection with the most important of all important subjects. When I look to the state of the schools, as compared with the constantly changing condition of society, and survey the sort of instruction they communicate, I find them to be defective in very many essential particulars; and to these defects I shall now shortly address the attention of your lordships; for on the due consideration of them must be grounded, whatever aid is to flow from legislation; because, from an examination of them alone it is that we can hope to discover the quarters in which Parliamentary interposition is either requisite or safe.

I say, then, first, that the schools are still too few in number; secondly, that they are confined to children of an age too advanced; and, lastly, that they give a kind of instruction exceedingly scanty and imperfect. I am prepared to demonstrate these three propositions by facts which are within the knowledge of many of your lordships, and would be known to you all, if you deemed the subject of sufficient importance to fix your attention.

First, I am to show that the schools, numerous as they are, and much as their numbers have of late increased, and greatly multiplied as have been the scholars who attend them, nevertheless are still insufficient for the education of the whole of the people of this country, and for communicating to them even the small degree of knowledge which they profess at present to teach. It is a fact, and it is one of importance to bear in mind, that, if you take the children of any country between seven and twelve years of age, they amount to between 10 and 11 per cent. of the whole population. If that be so, it is demonstrable that the average of instruction of the people of England, at the present moment, is still defective. The whole population of England and Wales amounts to 13,894,000. Of this large population, there is not a ninth* instructed, as the proportion requires;—no, nor a tenth part neither, for a ninth is 1,543,700; a tenth is 1,389,400, and there is only 1,294,000, or very little more than one-eleventh; and this number of 1,294,000 includes 65,000 infants under the age to which my proportion applies; so that it is in truth only 1,229,000 that are provided for, being only between one-eleventh and one-twelfth, and leaving a deficiency of above 300,000 as regards the ages between seven and eleven or twelve. That, indeed, is not the age to which, in my opinion, you should alone look; but I am now calling the attention of your lordships to the inadequacy of the present provision, even for accomplishing its professed purpose of teaching a little knowledge to children out of the infant state.

The whole amount of this kind of education I have stated as given to not much more than one-twelfth of the population. But this is the

* The expression of schools for one-ninth of the population means this: That proportion of the whole people (one-ninth) denotes the children of certain ages—thus in a million of people there may be about 110,000 children between seven and twelve years old; that number, or one-ninth, therefore require schools, in order that all may be educated.

average, and unfortunately it is unequally distributed, being most abundant in places where it is least wanted, and where it is most required, least liberally afforded. The average of all England and Wales we shall say is one in twelve; but what is the proportion in certain counties? Why, one-thirteenth, one-fourteenth and one-fifteenth. And which are those counties, I would ask, where education is the least expanded? They are Middlesex and the County Palatine of Lancaster; and I believe, though I have not the returns, I may add Surrey. Of Middlesex and Lancaster, however, I can speak with certainty, that the proportion is little more than one-fifteenth, being in each a deficiency of near 60,000 children; and these are the two counties in all England in which the importance of education is the greatest; so that the provision for instruction is scanty, exactly in proportion as the circumstances of the people require that it should be abundant. For I ask whether the metropolitan and the great manufacturing counties are not those which every consideration of public policy and of public morals (if things which are one and the same must be spoken of as distinct) prompts us to instruct most liberally—to fill with the means of education—to stud over with schools? Nor is this inequality of distribution confined to provinces; it pervades districts also. In those populous counties, with their large towns, the general proportion is little above one-fifteenth. But if this average were equally divided between the town and country population, the evil would be less. Unfortunately such is not the case; for in some of the great cities, as London, Westminster, Southwark, and the manufacturing emporia of the north, the average, instead of being a fourteenth, or even a fifteenth, sinks down to an eighteenth or nineteenth. Thus the average for all Lancashire being between one-fourteenth and one-fifteenth, in the two parishes of Ulverstone and Cartmel, where there are about 12,000 inhabitants, it is one-eighth, and in Manchester and Salford, where 182,000 people dwell, it is about one-eighteenth only; so that there is in this great town a want of schools for 10,000 children. In 1818, the average for all England was one-fifteenth; but for Lancashire, it was only one-twenty-fourth; and for Middlesex, one-twentieth. At present Lancashire presents a proportion of one-fourteenth and a half, and Middlesex about one-fifteenth; so that the latter county manifests a greater degree of improvement than the former.

Now, my lords, what is the melancholy result of this statement? It is neither more nor less than this,—that in the great towns of England there is still so considerable a deficiency in the means of elementary instruction provided, whether as regards endowed schools, or schools supported by voluntary contributions and private exertions, that in those places where it is most important to have the people instructed, there are nearly one-half of the children of the poor destitute of all means of education. I shall call upon your lordships, therefore, with the view of remedying this great evil, to adopt the principle sanctioned by the Report of the Education Committee of 1818. I am of opinion that the only safe course which we can take for supplying

the lamentable deficiency which I have described, is to furnish the great towns with the funds now wanting, and to apply this public aid so as not to interfere with the exertions of individual zeal, or cut off the supplies of private munificence. This is to be done, in my opinion, by acting upon the principle recommended in the second Report of that committee. The obvious course is, to plant the school, or rather to overcome the difficulty which generally prevents schools from being commenced—the want of an outfit for providing a building. I would by no means say to the people of Oldham, for instance, in Lancashire, or of Marylebone in Middlesex,—“Here is a sum of £200 a-year, or £150 a-year, to pay a schoolmaster or schoolmistress;” for that would have the effect of preventing many persons from subscribing annually, and it would especially disincline the poor to spare something for quarter-pence,—an exertion, on their part, of admirable use, as it not only preserves their independence, but makes them prize far more the instruction which they pay for. But the great difficulty of establishing schools is connected with the first cost—the building or buying a school-house. Let us, then, start the establishment, overcome the first difficulty, and meet individuals half-way who are anxious for the spread of education. Do not even say—“Here are £500 for this object;” but proceed on this principle—“If you will subscribe so much, we will subscribe the rest;” and you will, by these means, instead of repelling voluntary assistance, invite individuals to come forward in the cause. Such was the principle acted upon by the Church Building Commission, as tending to encourage rather than to repress, the exertions of the community. It was also adopted by the government in distributing the grants of £20,000 voted by the House of Commons in the years 1833 and 1834; and I am happy to say that the manner in which it was bestowed, has produced all the results expected by the promoters of the plan; which was, indeed, only acting upon the Education Committee’s Report in 1818. The establishment of hundreds of schools, and the contribution of thousands of pounds for the furtherance of education, has been the happy result; and but for the aid, the somewhat scanty aid, thus afforded, those sums would never have been devoted to this great national object, and those schools never would have existed.

But I come now to the second ground of complaint against the schools established throughout the country. My next proposition is, that they are only opened to children too far advanced in years. I consider the establishment of Infant Schools one of the most important improvements—I was going to say in the education, but I ought rather to say in the civil polity of this country—that have for centuries been made. I believe no one who has had an opportunity of observing those institutions, will feel the least hesitation in assenting to this opinion, and in confessing how desirable it is that the system should be generally adopted. But I wish now particularly to call the attention of the House to the reasons of fact, on which alone the usefulness of infant education is established. I assert, that we begin much too late in the education of children. We take for granted that

they can learn little or nothing under six or seven years old, and we thus lose the very best season of life for instruction. Whoever knows the habits of children at an earlier age than that of six or seven—the age at which they generally attend the infant schools—whoever understands their tempers, their habits, their feelings, and their talents,—is well aware of their capacity of receiving instruction long before the age of six. The child is, at three and four, and even partially at two and under, perfectly capable of receiving that sort of knowledge which forms the basis of all education; but the observer of children, the student of the human mind, has learnt only half his lesson, if his experience has not taught him something more: it is not enough to say that a child can learn a great deal before the age of six years: the truth is that he can learn, and does learn, a great deal more before that age than all he ever learns or can learn in all his after life. His attention is more easily roused in a new world—it is more vivid in a fresh existence—it is excited with less effort, and it engraves ideas deeper in the mind. His memory is more retentive in the same proportion in which his attention is more vigorous; bad habits are not yet formed, nor is his judgment warped by unfair bias; good habits may easily be acquired, and the pain of learning be almost destroyed; a state of listless indifference has not begun to poison all joy; nor has indolence paralyzed his powers, or bad passions quenched or perverted useful desires. He is all activity, inquiry, exertion, motion,—he is eminently a curious and a learning animal; and this is the common nature of all children, not merely of clever and lively ones, but of all who are endowed with ordinary intelligence, and who in a few years become, through neglect, the stupid boys and dull men we see.

The child, when he first comes into the world, may care very little for what is passing around him, although he is, of necessity, always learning something even at the first; but after a certain period, he is in a rapid progress of instruction; his curiosity becomes irrepressible; the thirst for knowledge is predominating in his mind, and it is as universal as insatiable. During the period between the ages of eighteen months or two years, and six,—I will even say and five—he learns much more of the material world—of his own powers—of the nature of other bodies—even of his mind, and of other minds—than he ever after acquires during all the years of boyhood, youth, and manhood. Every child, even of the most ordinary capacity, learns more, gains a greater mass of knowledge, and of a more useful kind, at this tender age, than the greatest philosopher is enabled to build upon it during the longest life of the most successful investigation—even were he to live to eighty years of age, and pursue the splendid career of Newton or La Place. The knowledge which the infant stores up—the ideas which are generated in his mind—are so important, that if we could suppose them to be afterwards obliterated, all the learning of a senior wrangler at Cambridge, or a first-class man at Oxford, would be as nothing to it, and would literally not enable its victim to prolong his existence for a week. This being altogether undeniable, how is it that so much is learnt at this tender age? Not certainly by teaching, or by any pains

taken to help the newly-arrived guest of this world. It is almost all accomplished by his own exertions—by the irrepressible curiosity—the thirst for knowledge only to be appeased by learning, or by the lassitude and the sleep which it superinduces. It is all effected by the instinctive spirit of inquiry which brings his mind into a perpetual course of induction—engaging him in a series of experiments which begins when he awakes in the morning, and only ends when he falls asleep. All that he learns during those years he learns not only without pain, but with an intense delight—a relish keener than any appetite known at our jaded and listless age—and learns in one-tenth of the time which in after life would be required for its acquisition.

Now, while the faculties continue so acute, and the curiosity so ardent, much more might be learnt—especially after the second or third years—and all this invaluable time is now thrown away; nay, even during those earlier years—the second and third—while he is, as it were by accident, acquiring his knowledge of external objects, he might also be receiving lessons of an important description, which would never be effaced from his memory, even to the last hour of his life. But so might he certainly in the fourth and fifth year, and after his first knowledge of external objects is completed. All those years—those most precious years—are thrown away; nor is this the only or the worst consequence of that time being lost; for if much that might be learnt is thus lost for ever, much that is pernicious is assuredly imbibed. While good habits, which might be implanted, are not formed, evil ones are fixed, which half a lifetime can hardly eradicate. It is really wonderful how much a child knows, at the age of seven, that he ought not to know, unless great pains be taken to teach him better, to exclude the worst species of knowledge from his mind, and prevent the most mischievous habits from becoming a second nature to him. Listless, indolent, inattentive habits, are formed before the age of seven, and the victim of curiosity becomes an indocile being. Perverse and obstinate habits are formed before the age of seven, and the mind that might have been moulded like wet clay in a plastic hand becomes sullen, intractable, obdurate, after that age. To the inextinguishable passion for all learning, succeeds a dislike for instruction, amounting almost to disease. Gentle feelings—a kind and compassionate nature—an ingenuous, open temper—unsuspecting, and seeking no cloak nor wanting any guard—are succeeded by violence, and recklessness, and bad morals, and base fear, and concealment, and even falsehood,—till he is forced to school, not only ignorant of what is good, but also well learned in much that is bad. These are the effects of the old system, the postponed education, and the neglected tuition of infants. But the history of infant schools has been consolatory to the philanthropist; their manifest good effects have roused the attention of the community to the sacredness of the trust reposed in their hands—to the absolute necessity of effecting a total change in the system of education—to the incalculable benefits derived from the infusion of useful learning, upon sound principles, into the minds of children at the docile

age, and of giving them innocent pursuits and wholesome habits, while these can yet be implanted in a virgin soil.

More would really be superfluous upon the general advantages of infant schools. I will only add, that in France, as well as in this country, the most sanguine hopes are entertained by all parties, of the benefits derived from their universal establishment. Our enlightened neighbours having sent over accomplished persons to learn the method, infant schools (called *Salles d'Asyle*) are established at Paris, and elsewhere; and, indeed, were I to point out the best I have ever seen, I should say, from the accident of a peculiarly qualified teacher having undertaken it, that the best is at Paris. The authorities of that capital are now occupied in multiplying such establishments. In this country, I think it is now about seventeen years since my noble friend* and I, with some others, began the first of these seminaries, borrowing the plan, as well as the teacher, from Mr. Owen's manufactory at Lanark; and though it has been eclipsed by others to which it gave rise, especially Mr. Wilderspin's in Spitalfields, and Mr. Wilson's at Waltham Cross, it yet has done vast good in its neighbourhood. On this I can appeal to any one of your lordships who may like to satisfy himself on the excellence of the system. The school I allude to still flourishes in Westminster, a few hundred yards from the spot where you now are.

But, my lords, I do not confine my panegyric of infant schools to the general use of early training; I have a much more precise and definite purpose in view; and when I express my meaning to your lordships, the proposition will probably be welcomed with the same degree of respect which my calculations received in 1828 from the inexperienced persons whom I have already described. I and my coadjutors may again be described as visionaries, speculatists, enthusiasts, to sum up all in one worst of words—theorists. We walked, but walked onward, among clouds of such phrases, thickly buzzing about from every corner; a little noisy, less troublesome, but offering no kind of resistance to our progress. If my opponents smiled at me, I smiled at them; so that quarrel we had none, and at length they who laughed, were first silenced, then convinced, and are now active allies. And now I am again exposing myself to a repetition of the ridicule, when I state that I consider that the establishment of infant schools in large towns where crime is rife, where the people are closely crowded and ignorant, and vicious as well as ignorant—that planting those schools in such haunts of men as London, Westminster, Southwark, Manchester, Birmingham, and Sheffield, would be the most simple and most efficacious preventive of crimes. It is usual to regard punishment as the means of deterring men from committing offences. I know that there are some who put their trust in the gallows for extirpating vice—that those who recoil from the idea of execution, fall back upon transportation—that those for whom the transport-ship has no charms, yet affect the penitentiary—that those

* Lord Lansdowne.

who dislike the unwholesomeness of the penitentiary, yet cling to the treadmill, believing in the virtues of solitary confinement for two weeks, or confinement not solitary, for the residue of six or twelve months. I know that various persons patronize these different punishments, that each has his reason for pressing his particular fancy, and that all flatter themselves their own favourite nostrum will be found the specific for our diseased moral condition. But this I also know, that no one ever stops to examine in what way punishment deters from crime, or asks himself if it really operates in that way at all; resting satisfied with the old received popular opinion,—learned by heart and repeated by rote, without the least regard to its meaning, far less to the reasons it may rest upon,—that “the example of the punishment deters from the commission of the crime,”—and so no remedy beyond punishment is ever thought of as worthy of a moment’s consideration. Far, indeed, is it from my intention, to say, “Abolish the criminal judges, do away with the gallows, the convictship, the treadmill, and repeal your criminal code;”—for I full well know that while the present system continues, you must have all the apparatus of penal legislation. I am not, certainly, one of those who believe in the kind of adage I have mentioned—the jingle about example and deterring; but although little good arises, according to my opinion, from the infliction of punishments, yet a great deal of harm would be done by their cessation, and, therefore, I do not say, “Dispense with such inflictions;” but I do really and sincerely declare, from the result of my practical experience, and on all the principles which I ever called to aid me in the inquiry, that the present system of punishment fails so entirely in accomplishing its object, that nothing can be less consolatory to the feelings of him who has to administer criminal justice, or him who presides over the councils required to execute it. It is almost incredible to those who have not well examined the subject, how little good can be ascribed to punishment in the way of preventing crimes. Hardened criminals may be got rid of by one infliction—banished by another—removed from society by a third—but the example of their suffering, were it far more known than it is, produces very little effect.

Having thus guarded myself from the imputation, which I might have drawn upon myself of wishing you to alter any part of the criminal code upon these grounds, I may proceed to state my reasons for holding the opinion which I have stated as being mine. It appears to me evident that all who have discussed this question of crime and punishment, have proceeded upon an erroneous supposition. They have all assumed, that a person making up his mind about committing an offence against the law, is a reasoning, provident, calculating being. They have all argued on the supposition, that a man committing a robbery on the highway, speculates at the moment of planning his expedition, upon the chance of being hanged for it; or that a man projecting forgery, is well aware of the punishment which awaits him, and feels a conviction that he shall suffer it. All reasoners upon this subject have gone upon the assumption, that the indivi-

duals who commit crimes, calculate beforehand the consequences of their conduct, as the merchant, in his counting-house, reckons on the chances of profit and loss in his speculations; or the farmer—(if, indeed, farmers ever calculate)—on the crops, the markets, and the seasons. That is the first mistake; but there is another not less detrimental to the argument. It is equally assumed, that the individual is, at the time of making the supposed calculation, unbiassed and free in his mind—that he considers the subject with calmness and deliberation—in short, that he is altogether in the same frame of mind in which we are ourselves, when devising the punishment for his offences—whereas, he is almost invariably under the influence of strong excitement: he has lost money at the gaming-table, and is ruined, if he cannot pay or replace it—he ought to have calculated before he went there, and he might then have reasoned; but that is not the moment to which the penal denunciations are addressed—he thinks not at all till he feels the consequences of his imprudence, and has debts to pay after his losses—has a family and a station to support in spite of them; and then comes the question, what shall he do—and then he is supposed to count the risk of detection, conviction, and punishment, if he plunges into a course which will relieve him from his pressing embarrassments. In circumstances like these, I very much doubt his calculating at all; for what fills his whole mind is his ruined condition; he feels much; he fears much; and he is disordered in his understanding, by the vehement desire to escape from the endless difficulties into which his rash imprudence has hurried him. In such a frame of spirit he is little likely to pause and consider. But suppose him to calculate—his reckoning will not be so much of the amount of danger to be encountered by the criminal act, as of the utter ruin and disgrace in store for him if he be a defaulter. The truth is, that men rush on the commission of the greatest crimes, under the dominion of passions which lay their reason prostrate. The greatest of all enormities are almost invariably committed under the influence of mighty excitement. It is the madness of lust, and a rape is perpetrated—or the fury of revenge, and murder is done—or hatred wrought up to frenzy, and houses are burnt or demolished; the stings of conscience being felt after the offence, and in the calm that succeeds the tempest of passion. Even offences of a more sordid kind, those against property, and which are more connected with speculation, are planned with such a desire of obtaining the things sought after, to supply some necessity, or gratify some propensity, that in estimating the risk of detection and punishment, hardly a thought is bestowed on those dangers; so that altogether very little reliance can be placed on the deterring influence of punishments, whether seen or only heard of. But if punishment is inefficient, I am sure that prevention is effectual. The schools which have already been established for children at the ages of seven, eight, nine, and ten, exhibit results consolatory as far as they go; but these are very ineffectual instruments of improvement compared with those which I wish to see established, where the child, at the earliest age, may be taken under the fostering

care of the instructor—where the acquisition of vicious habits may be effectually prevented, and the principles of virtue may thus early be instilled into the mind—where the foundation may be laid for intellectual as well as moral culture—and where, above all, the habits of prudence, industry, and self-control, may be taught at a season when lasting habits are easily acquired. If, at a very early age, a system of instruction is pursued by which a certain degree of independent feeling is created in the child's mind, while all mutinous and perverse disposition is avoided—if this system be followed up by a constant instruction in the principles of virtue, and a corresponding advancement in intellectual pursuits—if, during the most critical years of his life, his understanding and his feelings are accustomed only to sound principles and pure and innocent impressions—it will become almost impossible that he should afterwards take to vicious courses, because these will be utterly alien to the whole nature of his being. It will be as difficult for him to become criminal, because as foreign from his confirmed habits, as it would be for one of your lordships to go out and rob on the highway. Thus, to commence the education of youth at the tender age on which I have laid so much stress, will, I feel confident, be the sure means of guarding society against crimes. I trust everything to habit—habit, upon which, in all ages, the lawgiver, as well as the schoolmaster, has mainly placed his reliance—habit, which makes everything easy, and casts all difficulties upon the deviation from the wonted course. Make sobriety a habit, and intemperance will be hateful and hard—make prudence a habit, and reckless profligacy will be as contrary to the nature of the child grown an adult, as the most atrocious crimes are to any of your lordships. Give a child the habit of sacredly regarding truth—of carefully respecting the property of others—of scrupulously abstaining from all acts of improvidence which can involve him in distress—and he will just as little think of lying, or cheating, or stealing, or running in debt, as of rushing into an element in which he cannot breathe.

Now, the problem we would resolve, is to find the means of preventing that class from coming into existence amongst whom the criminals that infest society are created and fostered; and to solve this problem, we must first examine of what persons that class is composed. I consider that they come almost entirely from among the poorer orders of the people, and chiefly in the large towns. My calculation, into the data of which I will not now stop to enter, is, that the persons among whom crime is generated form about one-fifth of the population in the large towns, about one-sixth in those of the middle size, and about one-seventh in the smaller towns. The class to which I refer is not among the higher ranks of society, not certainly among the middle classes, nor yet among those immediately below the middle classes—I mean that most valuable body of the working classes who are at once skilful, industrious, and respectable; but the persons from the body of whom criminals are produced, are a certain proportion of the mere common day-labourers, who, almost of necessity, suffer severe and constant difficulty in obtaining the means of subsistence in

the present state of society, and for whose conduct every possible allowance ought in justice to be made. The question, then, is reduced to this—How shall we so deal with this body, this portion, of the people, as to prevent them from growing up with vicious or with improvident habits, which are the parents of vicious ones, and turn them to habits of an opposite description—such habits as will make profligacy, and improvidence, and crimes, foreign to their nature? Then, I say, that planting a sufficient number of infant schools for training and instructing all the children of those classes of the people, will at once solve the problem of prevention. Of this I cannot doubt, unless I disbelieve the evidence of my own senses in England and France, and deny all that I know from the testimony of others regarding such seminaries. In any community crimes would be reduced to an inconsiderable quantity, if infant schools could be established sufficient for the children of all those classes of the community to which I have alluded. The real difficulty is, indeed, inconsiderable—it only relates to providing the schools; for all those persons who have themselves been thrown into evil communication by the want of knowledge, and by earthly bad habits, have invariably, to their praise be it spoken, looked favourably upon infant tuition. I have had an opportunity, myself, of observing that portion of the community; and I am happy in being able to say that I never saw any one of them, however exceptionable might have been their own conduct, or however deficient they were in education themselves, that did not express an anxious desire to place their children where they could be better brought up than at home, and made better than themselves. Here, then, is a powerful lever to be moved by us, whenever we shall interfere in this great department of public policy. With such an object in view, and with such facilities as this good disposition in the poor affords, I cannot conceive that there will be any material difficulty in obtaining the means of planting infant schools, in sufficient numbers to train the proportion of the people which I have already mentioned. The cost I know, from an accidental circumstance, to be moderate. A legacy estimated at £7000, or £8000, was some years ago left to me, on the supposition that I held certain opinions which I really did not entertain. I, of course, felt that I had no right to take it, given, as it was, under an entire misapprehension; and I destined the money to the purpose of establishing infant schools sufficient to train one of the great parishes of this metropolis—which all the inquiries and calculations made, proved that the fund would easily do. However, the opinion of Mr. Hart being taken, and finding that I must undergo a Chancery suit before the money could be obtained, I abandoned it altogether, by renouncing. But, in consequence of the project I had conceived, inquiries were set on foot, by which it was made manifest that for £7000 we could establish schools which would train that portion of a population of 130,000, which I suppose to furnish the criminals. If the schools were established by the government, they would probably cost a little more, because government never can work so cheap as individuals; but I am quite satisfied, that if the wisdom of Parliament

gave but the inconsiderable sum of £30,000 for two years (inconsiderable compared with the millions so easily and so lavishly voted for wars and other evil purposes), we should be able to provide for the training of the whole of London, on both sides of the river, and that the effects of it, on our criminal judicature, would very soon become apparent, as well as on our parish expenditure. We should witness the improvement of the morals of the community, in the diminution of crimes—the improvement of its circumstances, in the diminished improvidence and poverty of the people. This measure would be remedial, and preventive, and healing in a degree far surpassing all that has hitherto been attempted by the unwieldy arm of criminal jurisprudence.

I well know the consequences of the present system of punishment, and, in truth, nothing can be worse. There are in London thousands of juvenile offenders, as they are termed, and not incorrectly, for they are eight, nine, ten, and eleven years of age, and they have offended; but they are as yet beginners in villany; they are not adult criminals; they are not inured and hardened in vice; they have accidentally, occasionally, as it were, violated the law: but enclosed for a week or two in Newgate, or some other school of crime, some receptacle for accomplished villains, the immature rogues perform their noviciate among the most finished adepts in the art, and return thoroughbred, irreclaimable profligates, to that society which they had left raw and tender delinquents. If there were infant schools instead of Newgate schools, for receiving the children of the needy, a very different fate would attend those unhappy youths. Vice would be then prevented—nipped in the bud, instead of being fostered and trained up to maturity—and more would be done to eradicate crimes, than the gallows, the convict-ship, the penitentiary, the treadmill, can accomplish, even if the prison discipline were so amended, as no longer to be the nursery of vice. That the number of infant schools is at present lamentably inadequate to produce anything like such good consequences as these, needs hardly be shown. In the thirty-three counties for which we have the returns, there are only 2200 such schools, with 65,000 scholars, so that, instead of there being infant schools for the mean proportion of one-sixtieth part of the population, there are schools for not much more than 160th part, not much above a third of the demand: and this average is very unequally distributed; for in all the most populous and manufacturing districts it is lower, Middlesex only excepted: thus in Lancashire the proportion is 1-212th, and in Cheshire, 1-223d. In the four northern counties there are hardly any infant schools at all, but the other schools are much more numerous than elsewhere.

I cannot quit the subject of the connection between ignorance and crimes, without taking notice of an objection which has been raised to my argument. It is said, "education is increasing, but offences are multiplying still faster than schools," and so men cry out, "you do no good with all your teaching." Upon this I must first observe, that the increase of crimes is not evidenced by the increase of prosecutions,

as circumstances have operated to bring before the public of late years many violations of the law which were formerly committed, and not visited with prosecution. Those juvenile offenders are now in vast numbers prosecuted for felonies, who used before to be whipped by their parents or masters, after being taken before a magistrate. It is deemed expedient, in the great desire of criminal justice, to hurry the children off to gaol, there to be instructed in all the arts of consummate villany. Nor has anything tended more to multiply such prosecutions than the recent alteration in the law, giving costs to the prosecutor out of the county-rates. But if I am asked for proof that the connection between vice and ignorance is intimate and apparent, I can prove it, should any one deem a proof necessary of a proposition so self-evident, by documents which leave no doubt whatever on the subject. One or two examples may suffice: 700 persons were put on their trials, in the winters of 1830 and 1831, charged with rioting and arson, and of those 700 (not all of the lowest rank of life, nor, as might be expected, the worst offenders), how many could write and read? Only 150; all the rest were marks-men. Of the number of boys committed to Newgate during three years, two-thirds could neither read nor write. At the Refuge for the Destitute it is still worse; for from an examination there made, it appears that the number of children received, who can read with tolerable facility, is in the proportion of only one in every thirty or thirty-five. A respectable magistrate of the county of Essex, a member of the other House of Parliament, has given evidence before a committee of that House, and he states that nine times out of ten the persons who come before him are unable to write, and that he is obliged to take their marks instead of their signatures. With such glaring facts before us, I suppose I may be allowed to assert, that it is not mere speculation to connect ignorance with crimes.

The experience in other countries runs parallel with our own on this important matter; and it is principally from a conviction of the truth which I have been propounding, that so general a disposition prevails among the rulers even of arbitrary governments to promote public instruction. Indeed, the greatest exertions have been made for this purpose in those states which have not, as yet, a free constitution. France, I am sorry to say, admirable as her present efforts are, must be reckoned among the lowest in point of actual amount of instruction, excepting, of course, Russia and Turkey; the former of which is hardly within the pale of society, the latter, certainly without it. As late as 1817, the proportion all over the French territory was one in thirty-five,* while with us it was one in fifteen of the population. But this disgraceful state of things roused the noble spirit of that generous people; philanthropic societies were everywhere formed—the government lent its aid in founding schools, and in the space of only two

* That is, as before explained, there were schools not for one-ninth of the people, or for all children between seven and twelve, but only for one-thirty-fifth, or for about one-fourth part of the children that require schooling.

years, the proportion was reduced to one in twenty-eight; so that schools must in those two years have been planted for no less than 215,000 children. Since that time, and under the present constitutional government especially, the progress has been rapid, and parochial instruction is now a branch of the law of the land. In Holland, it appears from the report of the celebrated Cuvier, that as early as 1812, there were schools sufficient for the education of 190,000 children, and that the proportion was one in ten, being equal to Scotland nearly. In Wirtemberg, schools are required by law to be supported in every parish, out of the church funds. In Denmark, Bavaria, and Saxony, they are supported by a parish-rate, and even in Russia, which I said was almost out of the European pale, so sensible is the Autocratic government of the necessity of educating the people, at least in towns, that the public funds maintain schools in all the town parishes. Sweden is, perhaps, the best educated country in the world; for it is there difficult to find one person in a thousand who cannot read and write. The accounts from those countries show that the progress of education, but especially of infant tuition, has been attended with marked improvement in morals; and it is well known that in Spain, the worst educated country in Western Europe, tenfold more crimes are committed of a violent description than in Germany, England, and France. The opinions of the jurists and statistical writers in Prussia are strongly pronounced upon this subject; and I need not dwell upon what all your lordships know, the regular system of even compulsory education which prevails both there and in some parts of Switzerland.

But the third proposition which I undertook to demonstrate, relates to the kind of education given at our present schools. Not only are those establishments too few in number—not only do they receive children at too advanced ages—the instruction which they bestow hardly deserves the name. You can scarcely say more in its praise than that it is better than nothing, and that the youth are far better so employed than idling away their time in the streets. They learn reading, some writing, and a very little arithmetic—less it is nearly impossible to learn. I speak of the ordinary day-schools generally; and I affirm that to hear such places called seminaries of education, is an abuse of terms which tries one's patience. Learning of that scanty kind is only another name for ignorance; nor is it possible that it should be better; for the schoolmasters are uneducated themselves; they know little of what they ought to teach; less still of the art of teaching, which every person who is only a little less ignorant than the children themselves, thinks he is quite capable of exercising.

It is strange to observe how far we are behind other countries in this most essential particular—the quality of our education. It should seem that our insular prejudices had spell-bound us, as it were, by a word, and made us believe that a school means useful instruction, and that when we had covered the land with such buildings, whatever was done within them, or left undone, we had finished the work of instructing the people. I had lately an opportunity of observing what

is now doing in almost every part of France, for the truly paramount object of making education good, as well as general. Normal schools, as they are called,—places of instruction for teachers,—are everywhere establishing by the government. This happy idea originated with my old and venerated friend, Emanuel Fellenberg,—a name not more known than honoured, nor more honoured than his virtuous and enlightened efforts in the cause of education, and for the happiness of mankind, deserve. Five-and-twenty years ago, he opened a school for the instruction of all the teachers in the Canton of Berne, of which he is a patrician. He received them, for the vacation months, under his hospitable roof, and gave them access to the lessons of the numerous learned and scientific professors who adorn his noble establishment at Hoffwyl. I blush for the infirmities, the imbecility of the order he and I belong to, when I add, that the jealousy of the Bernese aristocracy prevented him from continuing this course of pure, patriotic, and wise exertion. But the fruits of his experiment, eminently successful as it proved, have not been lost. In other parts of the Continent, normal schools have been established; they form part of the Prussian system; they have been established in other parts of Germany; and I have seen and examined them in all the provinces of France which I visited last winter. I have seen twenty in one, thirty or forty in another, and as many as a hundred and twenty in a third normal school,—all teachers of youth by profession, and all learning their invaluable and difficult art. In fact, the improvement of the quality of education has everywhere, except in England, gone hand-in-hand with the exertions made for spreading and augmenting its amount, and has never been overlooked, as often as any government has wished to discharge one of its most important and imperative duties,—that of instructing the people. It has never, save in our country, been deemed wise to deal out a niggard dole of mental sustenance by teaching mere reading and writing, which is what we call education, and we hardly ever look beyond it. Our neighbours, whom we habitually look down upon, provide a system of learning far better deserving the name. In addition to writing, reading, and arithmetic,—geography, natural history, practical geometry, are taught together with linear drawing, one of the most improving and useful exercises for the humbler classes, which gives them not merely the means of harmless recreation, but valuable habits of observation, and a capacity of acquiring precise ideas of external objects, whether of nature or of art, beside proving actually gainful in almost every occupation, if any question of mere profit and loss is to be mentioned by the side of such high considerations. This accomplishment is universally found not only most attractive to the working classes, but most useful for the improvement it gives them in their several occupations.

I have inquired of well-informed foreigners—not certainly, in France—if in addition to a little natural history and mineralogy, the children were not allowed to learn civil history also? The answer was, No; that is forbidden; and in certain countries, seats of legitimacy, it may not, without risk be taught.—So that the pupils learn the history of a

stone, of a moss, of a rush, of a weed; but the history of their own country, the deeds of their forefathers, the annals of neighbouring nations, they may not read. They are not to gain the knowledge most valuable to the members of a rational and civilized community. History—the school of princes, where philosophy teaches by example—must present closed doors to their subjects; the great book of civil wisdom must to them be sealed. For why? There are some of its chapters, and near the latter end of the volume, which it is convenient they should not peruse. Civil history, indeed!—the history of rulers! Why that would tell of rights usurped,—of privileges outraged,—of faith plighted and broken,—of promises made under the pressure of foreign invasion, and for gaining the people's aid to drive back the invading usurper and tyrant, but made to be broken when by the arm of that deluded people, that conqueror had been repelled, the old dynasty restored, and its members only remembered the invader and the tyrant, to change places with him, and far outdo his worst deeds of oppressing their subjects and plundering their neighbours! History indeed! That would tell of scenes enacted at their own doors—an ancient, independent, inoffensive people, overcome, pillaged, massacred, and enslaved, by the conspiracy of those governments, which are now teaching their subjects the history of the grasses, and the mosses, and the weeds;—tell them that the Bible and the liturgy were profaned, which they are now commanded to read, and the Christian temples where they are weekly led to worship, were desecrated by blasphemous thanksgivings for the success of massacre and pillage! It would tell them of monarchs who live but to tyrannize at home, and usurp abroad—who hold themselves unsafe as long as a free man is suffered to exist—who count the years of their reign by just rights outraged, and solemn pledges forfeited—monarchs who, if ever, by strange accident, the sun goes not down upon their wrath, exclaim that they have lost a day—monarchs who wear the human form, and think nothing inhuman alien to their nature! No wonder, indeed, that civil history is forbidden in the schools of those countries! The tyrant cannot tear from the book the page that records his own crimes and the world's sufferings, and he seals it up from the people! Let us be thankful that despotism is, for the wisest purposes, made as capricious as it is hateful, and that those scourges of the earth who dare not have their deeds told, yet teach men the knowledge which must, in the end, extirpate their own hateful race.

Those seminaries which they have planted for training masters are an invaluable gift to mankind, and lead to the indefinite improvement of education. It is this which, above everything, we ought to labour at introducing into our system; for as there are not more than two now established by the exertions of individual benevolence, and as, from the nature of the institution, it is not adapted to be propagated by such efforts, no possible harm can result from the interposition of the legislature in this department. That there are already provided, in the neighbourhood of this House, the means of improving our elementary education, and of training good teachers, I have the satisfaction of

knowing. In the Borough Road School of the British and Foreign Society, any of your lordships may, at any time, see a seminary of great excellency. I have lately visited it in company with some of your lordships, and certainly a more extraordinary spectacle of the progress of instruction among children, I never beheld, or, indeed, heard of, in any country at any time. It is really astonishing how the human faculties could, at so early an age—indeed at any age—be cultivated to such a degree. A dozen or two of the children were asked such questions as these:—"What is the interest of £535: 7: 4 for fifteen seconds?" "How many men will stand, allowing two feet and a half to a man, on three quarters of an acre?" Scarcely a minute was given for the answers, and they were as correct as they were instantaneous. The pupils were never puzzled in any case of calculation but one, and that must have been from some misunderstanding; for it was really the only question which I could have answered without pen and ink. But this marvellous display was not confined to arithmetic: among other things I saw a boy take a slate, without having any copy, and solely from memory trace upon it the outline of Palestine and Syria, marking all the variations of the coast, the bays, harbours, and creeks, inserting the towns and rivers, and adding their ancient as well as their modern names. Now, all this is real, substantial, useful knowledge, fitted alike to exercise and to unfold the faculties of the mind, and to lay up a store of learning at once the solace of the vacant moments, and the helpmate of the working hours in after years. I feel quite certain that when those children leave the school, they will be governed by such worthy principles, and stimulated by such generous appetites, as will make their pursuits honest and their recreations rational, and effectually guard them from the perils of improvidence, dissipation, and vice.

Here then, is the path plain before us—for there is not a single school in which the children might not be thus trained and accomplished. Place normal seminaries—seminaries for training teachers—in a few such places as London, York, Liverpool, Durham, and Exeter, so that the west, south, north-east and north-west of the island shall have the means of obtaining good masters, and you will yearly qualify 500 persons fitted for diffusing a perfect system of instruction all over the country. These training seminaries would not only teach the masters the branches of learning and science they are now deficient in, but would teach them what they know far less—the didactic art—the mode of imparting the knowledge which they have, or may acquire—the best method of training and dealing with children, in all that regards both temper, capacity, and habits, and the means of stirring them to exertion, and controlling their aberrations. The whole operation would occasion a very trifling expense to the state. I think £20,000, for five or six years, would, with the individual efforts that must be called forth, suffice for reforming effectually the whole education of the country.

I now come to another branch of the subject, which will bring me to the conclusion of my task, and release your lordships for the present:

it is suggested by the consideration of expense to which I have just been adverting. There are already, we are often told, and justly told, great funds in the country devoted to the purposes of education, and nevertheless, it is said, we would draw upon the public purse for more.* No man is more ready than I am, to admit the ample amount of those funds, and I will add, that they are so applied as to produce a most inadequate accomplishment of the purposes to which they were destined by the donors. In many cases, those funds are rendered absolutely useless by being withheld from the purposes for which they were designed; but in others, they are almost equally useless from an opposite cause—from there being a too strict adherence to the letter of the gift or foundation, which the altered circumstances of society have rendered wholly inapplicable to any good purpose at the present day. If the granter or founder has not given to the trustees a sufficient discretionary power over the property, they are unable to administer it to any advantage without the aid of a private act of Parliament. If they have no discretion in its application, they cannot provide for a partial or total failure of objects without the expense and anxiety of an application to the Court of Chancery, and even then the remedy is very incomplete. But the chief evil arises from gifts to education purposes, which are no longer of use in diffusing the requisite knowledge; and large funds, indeed, are thus rendered next to useless. Many a man thought two or three centuries ago, that he was conferring a great benefit on his neighbourhood by establishing a grammar-school, and endowing it with an estate, then worth two or three hundred pounds a-year, at present worth as many thousands. Now, the Court of Chancery holds that a grammar-school is one exclusively devoted to teaching Greek, Latin, or Hebrew; and that to bestow the funds otherwise is a misapplication. I know of a foundation of this kind, in a large manufacturing town, with an income of some thousands a-year, and which offers to the numerous uneducated people a kind of instruction to them altogether useless; while writing, geography, ciphering, book-keeping, mechanics, chemistry, drawing, would be invaluable acquisitions to the whole community. I could name other schools of the same kind, with nearly as good an income, and which support well-endowed masters to teach two or three boys, because they are grammar-schools. The true remedy here is to extend the powers of the trustees by law.

The imperfections of old foundations may well be illustrated by another example. Pious persons, in former times, thought that they did a good work when they established Foundling Hospitals. They imagined that such institutions would prevent child-murder and exposure of infants, and diminish the other evils arising from the illicit commerce of the sexes. As late as the last century, this was the prevailing notion among tolerably sensible and certainly moral and

* The sum of £301,000 a-year has been reported as the income of Education Charities. It must be £500,000 at least.

religious people: and, if their means had been commensurate with their wishes, we should have had a foundling hospital in every town in the kingdom. That delusion has, however, long ceased to prevail. All men are now agreed, that such establishments are not charities, but nuisances of an enormous nature, having the direct effect of encouraging immorality and increasing infanticide; and the funds destined to support those hospitals have been otherwise applied, the name alone being retained. Machiavelli says—that, in political affairs, you should beware lest, in changing the name, you alter the thing, without intending it; but he also says, that it is sometimes good, when you would change the thing, to keep the name. This maxim has been fully acted upon in the case of the London Foundling Hospital, and I have seen the bad consequences of following the Machiavellian rule. When lately in France, I made war upon foundling hospitals, and I found a formidable host of prejudices embodied in their defence; a host the more dangerous, that they have been enlisted in the service by the purest feelings of benevolence. I visited establishments of this description in every part of the south of France. While examining one, I was amused with the self-complacency of my worthy conductors, whose countenances mantled in smiles, while they exhibited for my admiration what were considered the peculiar merits of their institution, especially its revolving box, with the bell, and the comfortable cradle, open at all hours of the night, and nurses ready to attend the summons, and charge themselves with the fruit of guilty passion, or improvident wedlock. Through this wicket, I was told that about half the children in the house were taken in, their parents, of course, wholly unknown; while the remainder (and here was the other boast of the hospital,) were received after the most careful examination of the father and mother. My opinion was expected, and, doubtless, a favourable one. I was compelled to admit, that I considered the arrangement, more especially the mechanism of the *tour*, or turning cradle, to be quite perfect—to be adapted with singular skill to its object; and, I added, that if all the fiends below had met in council to contrive means of propagating immorality, certainly they could have invented nothing to surpass this. But when the rigorous system of examination was relied upon, and when I asked, “If they were sure no improper person, among the parents of the 120 children thus received, were suffered to participate in the advantages secured to deserted children?”—the answer was—“None such could succeed in their application, because all were submitted to the most careful scrutiny as to their lives and circumstances.” “I dare say not,” said I, “and further, that no persons ever present themselves who cannot stand the tests applied; for why should they, when they have only to go under cloud of night, and leave their infants in the cradle, ring the bell that calls the nurse, and walk quietly away?” It is needless to add, that no answer was made to this, because none could be given. At Bordeaux, too, there is an institution of the same kind, where above 2000 foundlings are maintained; these, as is quite sure to happen, have very much increased, being now one-third more numerous than they were five years ago;

and I found that the bulk of the cases which came before the police, were of young men and boys who had been bred in the Foundling.

Many of my excellent and enlightened friends in France held the same opinions with me upon these subjects; but the majority, and especially of charitably disposed persons, overbore us with their numbers, and by their amiable and meritorious, but inconsiderate and unreasoning, feelings of false benevolence. Those persons I always found citing against me the supposed fact, that we have in this metropolis a foundling hospital; indeed, a street deriving its name from thence, and a quarter of the town its property. My simple answer was, that the name alone had been for half a century known among us, the thing itself having long since been put down with consent of Parliament. In Dublin, too, the Foundling, one of the most dreadful abuses ever known in any civilized country, has, though much more recently, been abolished. In neither of these houses can a single foundling now be received. The parents are strictly examined before any child is admitted; and yet all the estates, and all the other funds, were expressly given for the single purpose of supporting foundlings! Who complains of Parliament for having wholly diverted those gifts from the only use to which the pious benevolence of former ages consecrated them? Is not the answer sufficient to satisfy all men, that the benevolence being mistaken, and the purpose mischievous, though well meant, another use must be made of the property, and the bounty of the donors turned into a channel the donors never had dreamt of? So, Lord Chief Justice Ellenborough publicly said, that if the Small-Pox Hospital was found hurtful, it must come down, whatever good intention we might ascribe to its benevolent founders. If, then, Parliament could interpose in such instances, I say it has the self-same right to interpose its authority where there is a pernicious application of the funds given to other charitable purposes; and the locking-up an ample revenue from public use, because there are no children who require tuition in the learned languages, is a pernicious application of funds. From the statute of Elizabeth downwards, charitable funds have been subject to public control, and dealt with as public property; and the acts of Geo. III and IV, as well as of his present Majesty, have all recognised the right, the duty, the expediency, of such interference, without in the least disregarding the rights of property, or the power of the trustees, or others connected with the different trusts. But the remedies given by the law are still very imperfect, and of a kind not at all adapted to some of the most prevalent evils.

Beside such defects in the endowments as I have mentioned, there are few education charities where an improvident application of the funds is not directed. Thus most of them are given not merely for the wholesome, and useful, and little expensive purpose of instruction, but also for feeding, lodging, and clothing the children. Now, unless in certain comparatively rare cases, as that of orphans, a permanent fund of this sort is open to exactly the same objections which have weighed most with the legislature in reforming the Poor-laws—it is a fund for giving pay without work, and for promoting improvident

marriages. That it is also a most wasteful application of money, there can be no doubt. I can illustrate this from the state of the London charities. Of thirty-six education endowments in Middlesex, in the year 1819, the revenue was £31,000 a-year, of which £22,000 arose from permanent funds. In these schools the number trained and educated by the foundation was only 2260, at a cost of nearly £10 (the sum being £9, 10s.) for each child. In four great London foundations, the revenue, at the same period, amounted to £34,000 a-year, and the number of children educated was 1620, being an average of £52 a-year for each child; but of these numbers, some were only day-scholars, as in the case of St. Paul's school, which is limited to 153 boys in number; and as the expense of these was, of course, not so great (yet still, I think, from £20 to £30 a-year, which is inexplicably high), the average charge of the others is within a trifle of £54 a-year. The average for education in the Foundling Hospital is the enormous sum of £45 a-year for each of the 195 children in-doors, while for 180 children in the country, the average was £11, 5s.

Now, if a respectable board were formed, it could do much for education, and for economy, without any rude or harsh interference. A board composed of persons who are not retail tradesmen, and so interested in jobbing with the funds, but men who derive authority from their station in society, and from their known disinterestedness in the discharge of a merely public duty, would be able, calmly and deliberately, to discuss the matter with the trustees, even of charities wholly supported by subscription. This we did, to a certain extent, in the Education Committee, and with marked success, though the interests of the tradesmen thwarted us at every turn—those same tradesmen who rejected, at one institution, the proposition of Mr. Justice Bayley, to prevent the house being furnished by articles from the shops of the committee of management, and thus made that most learned, most honest, and most humane judge, withdraw in disgust from a charity which he found systematically perverted to purposes of the most sordid avarice. A board possessed of due weight, and discreetly performing its duty, could, I doubt not, in a twelvemonth's time, convert the thirty-six endowments I first mentioned, into the means of giving the best possible education to 30,000 children, instead of taking less than a twelfth part of the number off the hands of their parents, and maintaining them, with a very indifferent kind of tuition, at an enormous expense, to the great profit of the retail-trade trustee. The spirit of conciliation, mutual respect, and good will, between the managers or trustees and this body, would, I confidently expect, put down those similar efforts. The bulk of the subscribers, and of the trustees where there is a foundation, are always persons who act upon principles of benevolence, and have no sinister views to serve; but, from indolence, and inexperience in business, they get into the hands of the interested individuals I have described, and these succeed in diverting the stream of beneficence into their impure channels, sometimes openly, sometimes covertly by means of the thin cloak cast over their jobbing, of changing the committee yearly, and allowing no

one while upon it to supply the articles required, but each one playing into the hands of his predecessor, who is also to be his successor and receive the reciprocation of favour. To terminate these abuses, and also to put the whole of the institutions upon a sounder and more useful footing, it only requires a full and kindly conference between the board and the disinterested portion of the patrons in each charity, for these only require to be informed and to be supported; they will do their duty in co-operating with the board, and the good work is finished. Whether anything further may be done for improvement in this matter, I will not at present say. In the first instance, this may be sufficient; but, at all events, endowments of every kind ought to be jealously watched, especially now that the Charity Commission has expired. Trustees should be repeatedly called to account; they should be made aware that there are still some persons in authority who have a control over them, although the commissioners are no more.

A power should also be given to the board, without which no endowed school can be expected to flourish for any length of time. However well trustees may perform their office, they should be watched over by this board, and even where there are visitors or guardians, *custodiet ipsos custodes*. But the power of making strict conditions with the schoolmasters, and of removing them when the conditions are broken, is wanted at present even by the most enlightened and honest trustees. For want of it, in my opinion, many of the lesser endowed schools are every day going to decay. It is absolutely necessary, in order to make them fruitful in the good things for which they were originally founded. I have not lived in the Court of Chancery four years, to have yet to learn the course which this matter ordinarily takes. There are many who covet the place of the master of an endowed school, though the salary may be small; but this covetousness is not of teaching the poor. That was the object of the founder, who desired to see instruction diffused among all the children of the humbler classes; but that is no object with the schoolmaster, who lives in the founder's house, and takes the profits of his land. The doors of his school are, no doubt, flung open, and there is no manner of doubt that the poor children may enter—if they dare. No doubt the boy may come in; the parent may send his child, if he had rather his child should suffer under and plague the master, than that he himself should suffer by being plagued with the child at home. If he be so careless of vicarious suffering in his child's person, he may thrust him from under his own eye, and place him under the rod of the endowed schoolmaster, who, I freely admit, will never shut the door in the child's face, nor ever tell him to depart, nor in words threaten the parent, or forbid him: the endowment must in nowise be openly violated. But this I also know, that the master of the charity school has boarders, children of a higher rank and station, under his care, and in his house—the very last creatures in the world that the founder ever dreamt would enter it. The wary master knows full well how the children of the better classes dislike to associate

with charity boys; he feels that, as the number of unprofitable pupils increases, the number of profitable ones falls away; and, therefore, although the door is open, the face of the master is not; on his brow perpetual sits the frown; his hand beckons not to entice the pupil of humble degree, the sole object of the donor's bounty; it is lifted only in anger, and as the instrument of punishment; and the boy, not the teacher, is of course always in fault. Thus I have lately heard in chancery proceedings, of amply-endowed schools, the poor scholars of which have fallen off from 100 and 150, to one, two, and three; and yet the foundation exists, the master exists, the house exists, the fund exists for the repairs, and the furniture, and the taxes. The name of the school is, or has been, celebrated as an endowed establishment, but its reputation is among the wealthy, whose children are there boarded at large prices, and taught Greek, and Latin, and fencing, and the dance, while no man knows that it is all the while a charity school, the benefits of which have been handed over to be enjoyed by the rich, and to serve the interests of the master. Now, in many endowments, the power of the trustees to impose conditions is doubtful; in others, some college at Oxford or Cambridge appoints a Fellow, and takes care to fetter him by no restrictions. And even if conditions are attached, on the nomination by trustees, and the master breaks them, who is to undergo the pains and perils of a chancery suit in order to accomplish his removal? Indeed, if the trustees neglect to require a fulfilment of those conditions, no one can, by any proceeding that I know of, compel them to call for a performance: in fact, the superintending power of equity is little better than nominal. The doors of Chancery, like those of the school, are open to all, but there is the schoolmaster's frown and his rod to be encountered in the one, and the heavier rod and sterner scowl of the master's office in the other. I hold it to be of essential importance, therefore, that there should be the power of removal vested in the trustees, and in the board.

My lords, according to the tenor of the observations with which I have detained your lordships, the resolutions are framed, which I now respectfully submit to your consideration. I have delayed bringing them forward, not from any disposition on my part, but because immediately after I originally gave my notice, the government was changed; and though I took no part whatever in any of the arrangements, consequent upon that event, I found all parties were so engrossed with them, that nobody would throw away even a thought upon a subject like the education of the people, until the crisis was at an end. This is the only reason of the delay. I now move your lordships:—

1. That although the number of Schools where some of the elementary branches of education are taught, has greatly increased within the last twenty years, yet that there still exists a deficiency of such schools, especially in the metropolis and other great towns, and that the means of elementary instruction are peculiarly deficient in the counties of Middlesex and Lancaster.

2. That the education given at the greater number of the schools now established for the poorer classes of people, is of a kind by no means sufficient for their instruction, being for the most part confined to reading, writing, and a little arithmetic; whereas at no greater expense, and in the same time, the children might easily be instructed in the elements of the more useful branches of knowledge, and thereby trained to sober, industrious, prudent, and virtuous habits.
3. That the number of Infant Schools is still exceedingly deficient, and especially in those great towns where they are most wanted for improving the morals of the people, and preventing the commission of crimes.
4. That while it is expedient to do nothing which may relax the efforts of private beneficence in forming and supporting schools, or which may discourage the poorer classes of the people from contributing to the cost of educating their children, it is incumbent upon Parliament to aid in providing the effectual means of instruction where these cannot otherwise be obtained for the people.
5. That it is incumbent upon Parliament to encourage in like manner the establishment of Infant Schools, especially in the larger towns.
6. That, for the purpose of improving the kind of education given at schools for the people at large, it is expedient to establish in several parts of the country seminaries where good schoolmasters may be trained and taught the duties of their profession.
7. That there are at present existing in different parts of the United Kingdom, funds, as well real as personal, to a large amount, given or bequeathed to charitable uses connected with education, but which, partly from want of objects in the particular places to which such gifts are confined, partly from want of proper powers in the trustees, partly from other defects in the foundations, and partly from a change in the habits of the people, have become, in many instances, unavailing to the purposes for which they were originally intended, and are now productive of very inadequate benefit to the country, while from want of publicity, abuses frequently creep into the management of them only to be remedied by tedious and expensive litigation.
8. That, in order to superintend the due and just application of the funds from time to time voted by Parliament for the promotion of education, to establish proper seminaries for training teachers, to encourage the trustees of charities connected with education, in using beneficially the powers now possessed by them, to watch over the abuses of trust committed by such trustees, and the control the exercises of such new powers as Parliament may grant them, it is expedient that a Board of Commissioners be appointed, with powers and duties to be regulated by Act of Parliament.
9. That it be further expedient to give such board a power of filling up the numbers of trustees, when they have fallen below the quorum in any will or deed of foundation, subject to the approval of the special visitor where there is one, and to authorize, subject to the like approval, the sale, mortgage, or exchange of any property

given to charitable uses, connected with education, for the promotion of the objects of the foundation, as far as these may be deemed beneficial to the community.

10. That it is further expedient to give such board a power, subject as aforesaid, of directing the trustees of any grammar-school, where the funds are sufficient, to apply such part thereof as may not be wanted for teaching grammar, in providing the means of common and improved education for the people at large.
11. That it is further expedient to give such board a power, subject as aforesaid, with consent of the trustees, and subject to appeal to the King in Council, to apply a portion of the funds intrusted to them, in such a manner as to produce a more general benefit, and at a cheaper rate, in the education of the people at large, where the particular employment of the funds directed by the founder has become difficult from want of objects, or prejudicial from the employment pointed out being no longer beneficial to the community.
12. That it is further expedient to give such board the power, in conjunction with the trustees, of imposing conditions upon the masters of endowed schools, in respect of taking boarders, and otherwise conducting themselves, and of removing them with consent of the trustees, in case of breach of such conditions.
13. That it is further expedient to give such board the power of calling, from time to time, for accounts of the management of endowed schools, both from the trustees and from the teachers.
14. That it is expedient to require all trustees of charities connected with education, to deliver yearly to his Majesty's Principal Secretary of State, an account of all sums of money received and expended by them in the execution of their trust.

I now beg leave to propose, that, with your lordships' permission, these resolutions be read; and it is my intention to move, that the further consideration of them be postponed, by adjourning the debate.

S P E E C H
ON
MOVING THE FIRST READING
OF
BILLS ON EDUCATION,

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

DECEMBER 1, 1837.

IN rising to state to your lordships the outline of the two bills for which I am about to claim the attention of this House, I ought first to state the reasons for which I adopt the unusual course of explaining their nature on my moving that they shall be read a first time, and why, therefore, I do not wait until they are printed. I trust that the plan I have adopted will not prove inconvenient to your lordships; for I feel that if I were to wait in the ordinary manner, until the bills shall have been read a first time, and then explain to your lordships the grounds on which I must request your lordships' support of the measures, I should neither do justice to their framers nor to their promoters; and besides, I really feel that I should not be able to state either the details or the principles of the bills in such a manner as they merit. I should no longer have an opportunity of removing from your lordships' minds any objections which might start up in relation to the arrangement of my plan; and in coming after those objections, unanswered as they would be, had taken root in your lordships' minds, I feel that I should hardly be considered to have exercised ordinary care.

If it be said that I might take the chance of your lordships' attention being drawn to the bills in the interval between their being read a first and second time, then I am favoured with an answer to this suggestion in the observations which have fallen from the Right Reverend Prelate* and the noble Marquess,† neither of whom seem to understand

* Bishop of London.
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† Lord Lansdowne.

that the measures which I am now about to bring forward have both of them before been under the consideration of the House; but they appear to imagine that I am about to bring forward a new plan, and that they are wholly unacquainted with my views. I do not blame either the noble Marquess or the Right Reverend Prelate for not paying attention to the bills when they were before the House during three successive years; nor do I blame them for fancying that I am going to break open new ground—that I am about to tread an untrodden field—and to introduce to your lordships some new principle; because, from time to time, the matter has been broached in Parliament, and still the House would not give its attention to the subject. The plan was before the House last session, on the first night of the session, and it was printed; and for the purpose of preventing the confusion that usually arises in reading the clauses of acts of Parliament, and to aid those to whom the repetitions in a statute would be obstructions, I took the liberty of circulating a digest,—an abstract of the provisions of the measure,—that no one might have the ordinary excuse for not reading the bill, in consequence of the tediousness of wading through its details. At the end of the session it was broached again. It was not attended to at the beginning of the session, because it was then too early; and it was not attended to at the end of the session, because it was then too late.

I cannot say that your lordships were prevented from applying yourselves to the subject, at the beginning of the session, by the pressure of business, for there was none; and for some time afterwards, your lordships did just as much. At the end of the session, there came an event which diffused universal joy among all classes of the people, following an event which the moment before had produced extreme sorrow—I mean the change of the sovereign. It is incidental to such occasions that questions of this kind should not be attended to; and in consequence of the desire of her Majesty that no further public business should be transacted during the session, and from the pressure of business, I was going to say—but it was rather from the distractions of pleasure which followed, it became necessary that it should again stand over. One bill, then, which I now have to bring forward is, in its principles, the same as that which I first introduced; but in reference to the Education Bill, there has been some alteration in the measure originally proposed, and this is now introduced for the first time. With respect to this addition, I may say that I had, last session, hoped that the necessity for its introduction would have been obviated by my honourable friend, who was then member for Middlesex,* having brought forward a measure respecting County Rates in the House of Commons; but his plan having fallen to the ground, I was left to devise some new provision to supply the deficiency caused by its failure; and therefore, this additional bill is now brought before your lordships for the first time. In all other respects the bills are the same with the bill of last session.

It is true that the former bill has been divided into two, that part

* Mr. Home.

which relates to education generally, having been separated from the portion which has reference to the better administration of charitable funds; and this division has taken place for obvious reasons. I think, my lords, that I shall best discharge my duty to your lordships, and to the great subject which I have to introduce, especially as the point has been indirectly discussed in the conversation which took place this night, as well as in that which occurred two nights since, if I begin by stating what appear to me to be the general principles which should be followed in any attempts at improving the extension, and the stability of popular education; and if, after having stated those general principles, I then explain the particular principles drawn, not only from the policy of every country, but also from the peculiar circumstances of this country and of the present time, and applicable to this measure.

No one is more aware than myself of the difference which exists between universal principles which are applicable to all countries and to all times, and those principles which are drawn from the peculiar circumstances of the present time and of this country; and without minutely attending to this material distinction it will be impossible for our labours to end in a good result.

After detailing those general principles, both general and particular, I shall proceed to unfold the several points of the measures to which I wish, on the present occasion, to direct your lordships' notice.

First, I think, my lords, that there ought to be, at no time, in any country, whatever may be its constitution, or whatever its state of society, any positive or direct compulsion as to the education of the people. I am aware, that some most respectable persons differ from me on this subject; they are not a numerous body, but they are of great weight, because they have paid much attention to the subject, and because almost all of them are possessed of much general information. Still, however, I cannot help feeling assured that they have been led away by looking at the circumstances peculiar to the several countries in which such a compulsory system exists. My opinion of the system pursued in those countries, and any view of those circumstances is, that their example is totally inapplicable to our own situation; that it would be absolutely pernicious to follow it; that persons have been led away from a view of a great evil, by the accidental mitigation of the compulsory system in the states in which it exists; and that, instead of seeing how bad in itself the principle might be which yet worked well in those states, they have been led to believe that the compulsory system should be adopted here, where it must work ill. They have been the more led away in consequence of their honest ardour and zeal for public instruction; and they have not brought their minds to a due consideration of the line over which the lawgiver ought not to pass, and beyond which he loses all claim to support, by the violation of the most sacred principles.

If I wished to demonstrate thoroughly that a compulsory system ought not to be introduced, I would put it to any person of common reflection whether it be safe and right, whatever may be the tempta-

tion arising from the deficiencies in the existing state of education, from the risk to be incurred from ignorance, from the duty of the parents, from the mischief which may arise, haunt, and infect us from the breach of this duty of parents;—I would ask that man to consider how delicate, how perilous a matter it would be, to usurp the parental office by public authority, and prescribe, by a command of the state, fortified, perhaps, by the penalties attached to an offence, the line of parental management which the father or mother should pursue in taking care of the offspring which Providence and nature have committed to their care? Another answer against the compulsory principles, if, indeed, any other be wanting, would be, that it is a violation of individual liberty—a tyranny introduced, no doubt, and I admit it, for a laudable purpose; but, nevertheless, avowing the intention, that, in order to educate people, you will enslave them—that, in order to diffuse instruction amongst them, you will contract their liberty, and introduce a system which is alike novel, horrid, and unbearable to the citizens of a free state, and only fit (if fit at all) for a country ruled by a despotic government, where, liberty being little known, slavery is the more bearable. This is my decided opinion. If noble lords will neither read nor hear, I am not surprised at their want of knowledge on the subject. I know the dryness of it, but I trust your lordships will at least bear with me while I state my views on this important question.

The next general rule which I would lay down, as fit to govern the conduct of those called upon to frame or consider measures of this kind, is not only that there should be no compulsion exercised, and no interference on the part of the government as regards who shall or shall not be educated at all, but that there should be no power given to the government to educate the people,—in other words, that the interference of the state should be excluded beyond what is absolutely necessary. With regard to the question, What course of education ought to be chosen? I should look with the greatest jealousy at the legislature of any country deciding it. It appears to me nothing more nor less than tyranny for any government to have the power of saying, “You shall have this instruction, or you shall have none”—deciding the number of schools to be established, the kind of instruction to be afforded in them, the mode of teaching to be adopted, and the description of books to be read. I am for no interference on the part of any authority whatever, but for leaving all parties uncontrolled and un-governed. I would have no rules laid down either by law or by boards, or by the joint operation of law and boards together. Neither would I have the executive government or the legislature prescribing a course of instruction, and teaching the people according to their own model. I will presently show how these great principles may be so modified as to obtain the object which we seek—the better education of the people—without the breach of the principle itself. In like manner I think that no government should appoint masters—that no government ought to be intrusted with the power of naming those from whom the public at large are to receive the benefit of secu-

lar instruction; for if any one were to give me the right of naming the teacher, without superintendence or control as to the fitness of the person appointed, I should not much trouble myself to obtain the power of prescribing the course of instruction; since whatever course might be fixed upon, I should feel confident that it would be as much moulded by the teacher as if an act of parliament, or a board, were to say what course should be taken; both the one and the other are unfit for the task, and even if fit, would be the most improper parties to say what books shall be read, what subjects shall be taught, what shall be the order or plan of education, or what person shall teach.

Although I am stating, most strongly and distinctly, that there should be no compulsory authority exercised by the state, upon the question of whether or not children shall be taught at all, or if taught, in what manner, in what things, and by whom they shall be instructed; although this is the principle upon which my plan is founded from beginning to end, and which I hold to be the corner-stone of any system of education fit for a civilized community: yet I am, at the same time, disposed to add, upon all these points—not that an exception or modification can be admitted, far from it—but that concurrent principles may be adopted which shall reconcile all difficulties, and enable me to gain the benefit without incurring the loss or the mischief. Thus, though decidedly against compulsion—against forcing parents to educate their children—I am disposed to say—not only that I am equally against holding out inducements or encouragement to them to neglect the education of their children;—because it is a duty on their part to have them instructed, and the breach of that duty is, in one sense, a moral offence (an offence, however, which ought not to be visited by the law, as the obligation is imperfect); but I further think it necessary, if you can, without any violation of principle—that is, without undue interference—without infringing on the liberty of the subject—without committing any violation of his rights—to hold out an incentive, and to give facilities of every sort to enable the parent to discharge his duty, and to prevent him, by all proper means, from neglecting it. If such a course as this were pursued, then would I say we have gained a benefit without incurring a risk. Accordingly, first of all, these inducements and facilities should consist in making education cheap, good, and easily acquired: but I go further.

I have no hesitation in saying, that the proposal for amending the law, in one or two important points, with a view to promote education, has found favour in my sight. Such amendments form no part of my plan; but it has been often said, with a view to afford an indirect encouragement to education, why not extend that provision of the statute of frauds, which prevents certain contracts from being valid unless they are in writing? My noble and learned friend* reminds me that this is already the law in other countries; I believe that it is so in France. It has been also said, that society in this country is now in

* Lord C. J. Denman.

a very fitting state for the application of such a provision under that intention. I confess I have no great objection to it. There are occasions when, without interfering with the rights of the subject, or the principles of a free state in the administration of the domestic affairs of the people, being absolutely certain that our plan is correct—and that we are perfectly justifiable, in wishing the people to do something manifestly for their own benefit, we may safely add to the encouragement held out to them by the nature of the thing, something of pressure, in case they refuse to avail themselves of such encouragement. I remember an illustration on this point, which has been employed in the discussion of a question of political economy, often broached, namely, how far a government is justified in interfering with the industry of the people, in point of policy. The illustration to which I allude, is drawn from the history of Russia under Peter the Great. Although the country abounded with timber, the people had not at that time acquired the use of the saw; and though the staple commodity was deal, yet the houses were most rudely fashioned, and a great waste ensued, because the workmen used no instrument for the conversion of the timber into planks but the hatchet. It appeared to the government—indeed, it was almost as self-evident to them, as it is to us that it is the duty of parents to educate their children—it appeared to Peter the Great—and if he never had done a worse action, he would have well earned the appellation which has been given to him—so clearly wrong, and so prejudicial to his subjects, to use the hatchet instead of the saw, that he commanded them to substitute the latter for the former instrument. A discouraging duty laid upon deals cut otherwise than with the saw, might, it was thought, have the effect of accelerating the use of that tool. A tax was accordingly imposed, and the first year it produced a great return to the Russian exchequer; but the next year there was scarcely a ruble received; for deals had ceased to be cut otherwise than with the saw. Just so, in the present case we may impose such disadvantages on those who are not possessed of education, as to have the effect of removing obstructions, and doing away with any unwillingness on the part of the poor, to receive its blessings. Now, if I thought the people of this country had come to a universal understanding of themselves—that they all felt the use of education, as well as the duty of imparting it to their offspring—then I should be disposed to listen to the proposition, not certainly of compulsion even by an impost, but that some disadvantage, or some disqualification, should be thrown upon the uneducated; while, on the other hand, some such advantage should be given to the educated as must constitute a distinct and tangible preference in their favour, and thus accelerate the object we all have in view.

With regard to the kind of education, I certainly should wish to see some improvement, so that instruction may not merely be brought home to every man's door by cheap mercantile schools, of which the poor may reap the advantage, but that schoolmasters may be prepared to perform, well and sufficiently, the important duties of their office. I think we should interfere as little as possible, beyond affording faci-

lities; we ought not to force, but to help; not to control, but to co-operate.

I proceed to those principles which are more particularly applicable to this country; in other words, to consider how far the more general principles I have stated are applicable to the circumstances of England. The vast number of schools is one circumstance to be taken into consideration. There are somewhere about 50,000 established throughout this country, 39,000 or 40,000 of which are unendowed, and supported by the exertions and subscriptions of private individuals; the remainder are endowed. Now, I am by no means disposed to agree in the opinion, that all children taught at these unendowed schools ought to be considered charity children. The large proportion of them are not, in any sense, charity children. I have the greatest respect for those who maintain Sunday schools; I look upon them as having done great service to the country; but, at the same time, the education afforded by them must of necessity be very limited and imperfect, at least to those who attend no others; but I speak now of the unendowed day-schools, and how many of the children attending those schools are in a situation to be called charity scholars? Not one-half. Many years ago there might have been one-half, but even then the endowed schools were included. In the year 1820, about 600,000 was the number of children who attended all the schools, endowed and unendowed; and of that number but 300,000 were free scholars, while the other 300,000 paid. Look, then, at the increased number of day-schools, and compare those who pay with those who are gratuitously educated. I find that about 1,120,000 children attend those day-schools, and that out of that number less than 390,000 are gratuitous, while 730,000—nearly double—pay for their education.

These are facts which have been hitherto much overlooked and underrated, in my opinion, by many individuals, who, in speaking on the subject, have said that a system of education given in the way of charity is pregnant with evil,—that it goes to lower the character of the children, and to constitute a kind of relation between one class of society and another which should by all means be avoided, as tending to create an unwholesome state of things in that society; that it is not merely good offices on one hand and gratitude on the other, but good offices combined with a patronizing spirit, and an assumption of charity which is not altogether consistent with the independence of character so greatly to be fostered; that the receiving of those benefits can hardly but be attended with feelings of subordination, not to say degradation,—with feelings which lower the individuals who receive them, and give them a notion that they are not independent, but that, being the victims of poverty, they are therefore objects of charity. Now, no one would go further, and I will say no one has gone further, than I, in deprecating the extension more than is absolutely necessary of such a system, and in wishing to see it superseded by one which will make that matter of right what is too often considered matter of favour. But to say that all those are charity schools merely because they are supported by subscriptions, and by the personal efforts, which are

more valuable still, of public-spirited individuals; to say that all the children who, by the exertions of those individuals, are enabled to receive instruction, are charity children, as if they were taught in work-house schools, is stating what no one who had minutely examined the real state of things would ever have ventured to assert.

Another fact which makes it impossible that a general system of education can be established without regard to local circumstances and the peculiarity of different situations, is, that whereas a system might work well in one kind of place, it would be found totally inapplicable in another. Suppose, for instance, we were inclined to adopt the course pursued by the Scottish Parliament previous to the revolution of 1688, which has been often since recommended in the English Parliament, namely, the Parish School system. The first answer to the proposal of establishing by law a school in each parish is, that there is perhaps half a dozen schools in each parish already; and that to add one more, without considering the circumstances of any given parish, would be a very preposterous proceeding, giving a school probably where it is not required, while only one school is given to other parishes that stand in need of a dozen. That system was adopted in Scotland when there was hardly a school in the country, and trade and manufacture being in their infancy, there existed very little difference between town and country parishes; but, in the present state of our towns and parishes, it would be absolutely and entirely inapplicable. A system that might be good for a commercial, might not be good for a manufacturing town. If applicable to a town parish, it might not be suited to a rural parish. If fit for one parish, it might be quite unfit for another, differing, perhaps, in every respect, as to all the circumstances of its inhabitants. Whatever system you establish should be so formed as to be capable of extension, contraction, or modification, according to the great variety of circumstances which are found to exist in various parts of the country, in different towns, and even in different villages.

Then, with regard to the question of funds. In some parts of the country, these exist in superabundance; in others, there is a certain portion of endowment; and in others, again, there are no funds at all.

Last of all, looking to the state of the country as regards religion, it would be quite impossible, still more strongly perhaps on this account than any other, to introduce a system which is not of an adaptable and a variable nature. There are, in all parts of the country, members of the establishment; in some, however, a considerable portion of the inhabitants do not belong to the Established Church, but are composed of dissenters from it. In other places there are no dissenters. In some there are hardly any others.

Such, then, is the state of the country as regards education. Much is already done by the schools at present in existence, by the funds provided for supporting them, and the assistance derived from the endowments on the one hand, and the payments made of the children on the other. In introducing any new measure, great care should be taken not to do anything that may lessen the efforts which are laud-

ably made by private individuals in support of these schools, or in any manner, to take away their funds; but rather to assist in furthering those efforts and contributing towards those funds, than to supplant them by any other provision. It has always appeared to me that it is absolutely necessary that the system adopted should adapt itself to these peculiarities, so as not to interfere with the exertions of individuals already made and still making, but rather should encourage and stimulate those exertions.

Again, it should be kept in view, that it is not merely the means of instruction which are defective—not merely that the schools are too few, numerous as they are, or that the children are too few, compared with the population, numerous as they are also,—for they amount, between the endowed and unendowed day-schools in England and Wales, to 1,270,000,—but the quality of the instruction is much more defective than its amount. Many of those schools are called such by courtesy—and by the extension of courtesy, we suppose that they give instruction to children—though many of them should be no more called schools, if by that is meant places for the extension of knowledge; and the teachers of them no more deserve their name, if by teaching is understood that which enables the pupil to learn—that which leaves him better than it found him—that which adds to the knowledge it possessed on entering the school—than any one thing can deserve to be called by a name by which any other thing, however different, is known. I do not think this is the universal state of the schools, very far from it. Many of them afford a very admirable example. I admit that many of the national schools, and many of the British and Foreign Society's establishments, may justly lay claim to the title of schools, and that the system pursued there may, without flattery, be deemed a system of teaching; but I will say, that a very large number—nay, I firmly believe that by much the greater part of the 40,000 unendowed day-schools afford to the youth of England an education which is exceedingly imperfect indeed. Upon this matter I cannot, of course, enter now into details; but I feel convinced that I do not at all overstate my position, when I assert that at least one-fourth (I am confident above one-fifth) of those schools are in such a state of indiscipline and utter want of accommodation, and, with respect to the learning and capacity of those who assume to conduct them, so totally unprovided, that, except by courtesy—nay, except in the language of gross flattery—they cannot be characterized otherwise than as merely pretended and counterfeit schools.

This is a state of things which we are beyond all doubt bound immediately to remedy; and the Right Reverend Prelate has most justly observed, that no one course can more safely or beneficially be applied to the improvement of those establishments, than that of bettering the condition and improving the education of the persons to whom the task of educating others is intrusted; in short, furnishing an ample supply of well taught and sufficiently remunerated schoolmasters. It is out of the question to suppose that a voluntary system of taxation

will ever effectuate this important purpose; for what security have we, I beg leave to ask, for that voluntary imposition of the necessary rates in those parts of the country where education is most wanted—I mean in many of our great cities and large manufacturing towns? It is there that the number of schools is most defective, and that the kind of teaching is also the most lamentably deficient. In some of the great towns of the north, and in the metropolis itself, where it is most wanted of all, people are not to be found who can afford to give their labour, or if they have the time, with purses to afford the means for suitably educating the poor. Yet these are indisputably the places where education is most wanted, and for which it is the incumbent duty of the legislature to provide it.

With a view, then, to all these circumstances, I would proceed to offer my suggestions to your lordships' notice. First of all, it seems to be admitted on all hands that, whether we are to go further in the way of making grants of money or not, at any rate a Public Department is essentially necessary—called abroad the Department of Public Instruction, but which we should call the Education Department. This establishment is absolutely necessary, if it were only to superintend and provide for the judicious and systematic application of those funds which are occasionally set apart for purposes of education. Accordingly, the plan which I propose consists, in the first place, in the establishing of such a Board. My object now is to call your lordships' attention to the duties which that Education Board will have to discharge. This forms the subject of the first bill which I intend to submit to your lordships.

With respect to those duties relating to the superintendence and administration of charity funds, to the remedies for breach of trust, to the better and proper application of the funds for the purposes of education, they are all matters of arrangement to be considered by themselves, and which will exclusively form the subject of the second bill. This division of the matter into two bills, is adopted for various good reasons. There are many persons who feel a difficulty with respect to the distribution of the charitable funds; but as to the part which is devoted to education, I believe no difference of opinion exists. That is my reason, therefore, for separating the subject. It cannot, perhaps, be ultimately separated, because such a board cannot properly discharge its duty without having some control over the application of the charity funds. The board as was originally proposed by me, was to consist of three paid commissioners, not removable unless by address to the Crown from both Houses of Parliament. To these were added three ministers of state and the speaker of the House of Commons: but in the plan I now propose I have omitted the speaker, and I have also omitted one of the ministers, so as to make the board consist of two ministers and three life members. It is almost needless to state why I have made this change. Many persons were of opinion that the speaker could have no time to devote to this subject; and it being avowedly my intention that the speaker should only interfere

in cases of an extraordinary nature, where his experience and authority would be required, I thought, upon the whole, that it might be proper to omit the speaker altogether.

Then, with respect to the omission of one of the ministers, many persons were of opinion that it would be as well to have but two, which would at the same time avoid the inconvenience of having an even number of members constituting the board. Accordingly, two ministers only are retained. It is necessary that there should be some members of the government on the board, because there are many things in which the concurrence of the government will be required. If I am asked what those things are which render it necessary to have its constant interposition, my answer is, that under the proposed system there will be grants of money, and there will be the administration of those funds; and it is well known that you cannot intrust the task of distributing money to any board of commissioners with the same degree of confidence which would be felt, were the distribution made with the concurrence of a minister of the Crown, whom both the country and the Parliament will look to as responsible. By the arrangement which I contemplate, the minister of the Crown will not be the person to appoint the school-inspectors and other officers of the board. But these appointments will be made by irremovable life commissioners, so as to prevent the abuse of this patronage for political purposes. Of course I here speak of ministers in the abstract; and, when I make provision against the possibility of ministerial jobbing, I do so on the principle that we are to legislate upon general views.

The first object of the proposed board's labours will be to distribute the grants which from time to time will be made available, and dispose of those other funds which either exist at present, or may hereafter be placed at their disposal. In the next place, they will have the power, but with the concurrence of the respective local interests, of founding schools where they do not exist, or of improving them where already established. The great and leading principle of the bill is a concurrence, in every instance, of the local authorities—that is to say, of the people among whom these schools are to be planted, extended, or improved—with the central body, before any change whatever can take place.

While I thus obtain, on the one hand, a security against too great an interference upon the part of government, and against the abuses which may arise therefrom, providing, at the same time, for a sufficient care of the education of the country by the government; on the other hand, I provide a security against local abuses, against neglect or carelessness on the part of the local authorities, and against their obtaining for unworthy purposes the possession of funds which they ought not to have, or raising funds amongst themselves which they should not be permitted to raise. I thus take security against both the local and central authorities, by requiring, in every instance, the joint concurrence of both the one and the other. Your lordships will presently

perceive how the bill is calculated to work out these objects, and provide this security. The country, for the purposes of this measure, may be considered to be divided into two distinct classes; one, the municipal corporations, whose local affairs are committed to town-councils representing the people; the other, into those districts of the country lying beyond the bounds of any municipal corporation, where the people have no councils, nor any body in whom the functions exercised by their representatives in corporate towns are vested; in short, where, in my apprehension, there is not at present existing any competent, safe, and trust-worthy body, to discharge those duties which are performed by corporations.

Now, supposing both the one and the other of this description of persons to desiderate the application of the provisions of the bill I wish to introduce, it becomes incumbent on me to show in what manner those provisions will be applied and will work. Suppose, in any town or parish, there is a great deficiency found in the means of instruction—it may either be that there is no school, or that there are too few schools; or it may be that those already existing are of a bad description, and ill provided with teachers; or it may be that two or more of these defects, or all of them joined together (which I am afraid is too often the case) prevail. Immediately, and of course, an attempt will be made, when the bill comes into operation, to remedy such defects by providing a sufficient supply, or a better kind of education—by extending the number of schools, or improving those that exist. But the town council of the place can do nothing of itself. It must make its application to the education department. It must lay a plan before the board—an estimate of what is required, a statement of the kind of school necessary in, the different branches of education to be taught, the mode of teaching best adapted to the local circumstances, and a statement of the proposed rules and regulations for the management of the school, for the choice of the teachers, for the discipline, for the visitation and inspection of the schools, and for the relations between the schools, and the patrons. All these rules must, by the town council, or the new local authorities in the country (of which I shall afterwards speak,) be prepared and laid before the board, with the reasons for requiring a sanction to their proposals. If the board, on listening to the reasons, are convinced—on examining the plan, approve of it—and, on scrutinizing the estimates, have no objection to them—if, above all, and first of all, after examining accurately the rules and regulations of the schools either proposed to be established, or proposed to be extended, or proposed to be improved, the board approve of them—then, and not till then, it may give its sanction to further proceedings. It may then say to the local authorities—“We see you require so much money to be advanced out of the Parliamentary grant. Furnish a certain proportion according to the rules which we have laid down, and you shall have the sum required.” It is unpleasant to interrupt one’s self in a statement, but the Right Reverend Prelate* has made an

* Bishop of London.

observation which justifies me in stepping aside for a moment from the course I was pursuing.

The system hitherto adopted in giving assistance from the parliamentary grants, is exceedingly imperfect. The rule laid down by the Treasury is, that, as often as any application is made from any quarter for such assistance, it shall only be given after a certain proportion—one-half, I believe—of the sum required, is undertaken to be raised by the parties making the application. This rule was represented as holding the balance quite even between the British and Foreign Society and the National Society. I myself at first thought it was so; and, during the first year, it was perfectly just, for the same number of applications were made from our society and from the National School Society. When I say "our," it is because I happen to be a member of the British and Foreign School Society, having presided at its first meeting thirty years ago. In the beginning, then, it seemed that both societies were on an equal footing with regard to the advances made from the parliamentary grants. But this was confined to the first year. The British and Foreign Society, and those classes whom it represents, actually exhausted their funds during that year; they were therefore unable to make a proportionate advance in subsequent years; so that, next year, upwards of two-thirds or three-fourths, or even four-fifths of the parliamentary grant, went to the National Society; and necessarily so, because that society and its friends being richer, were able to make the required proportional advances.

It did not, however, at all follow, that because applications were not made from any given place, and by the dissenting classes, therefore there did not exist an equal want of assistance there, and among them. I could name places where aid from the parliamentary grant is most pressingly wanted, and yet there are no means of raising twenty shillings towards the fund. It is, therefore, imperative upon the Treasury to alter their present system. They must have a plan capable of contraction and expansion, of variation and adaptation. To require a particular place to furnish two-thirds or three-fourths of the proportion of the sum wanted, may be, in some cases, asking too little, and in others, to require even a much less proportion of the money may be asking too much, while to require what is exactly right may probably occur only once in five hundred cases. The consequence is, that the money granted by Parliament is exhausted, and yet that education is wanted in many places. For aught I know, the mere educating and training of teachers may be alone sufficient to exhaust the parliamentary grants; or, it may be, that the parliamentary grants should never be applied, except in those very rare instances where no fund can be got by rate locally, nor by private assistance locally. In all other cases, I apprehend, a school rate may safely, and ought justly, and will beneficially, be directed under the sanction of the board, with the concurrence of the local authorities. The people of such places cannot complain of the new or improved schools, because they have consented to them by their representatives; they cannot complain of their burden, because they have asked it by their representatives.

They, and they alone, are to originate the plan. Unless they desire it, they are not to be rated; unless they call for the tax, the bill gives no authority to impose any whatever upon them. So much for the liberty which the bill affords to what may be called the voluntary principle, in the proper sense of the word, upon the spot. But, then, on the other hand, that the people should not at their own will and pleasure have the power of rating themselves without the authority of the central body, I take to be perfectly clear also; because it does so happen, that even representatives, chosen by the rate-payers at large, are sometimes disposed to incur expenses which their constituents, if left to themselves, would not have allowed. Therefore, it is not at all superfluous to interpose a protection against the possibility of such an abuse. Accordingly, the joint consent of the local authority of the district, and the central department, is required, before any rate can be made. Observe now, my lords, how the bill will work with respect to these regulations, and how its provisions will prevent oppression and abuse.

Suppose a local body were to propound to the board, with an estimate and statement of the want of education in their district, a set of rules extremely injudicious—a set of rules to which the legislature and the country ought not to afford its sanction; suppose there should be any intolerance in the case; suppose, for instance, the majority of the town-council should be disposed to oppress the minority; suppose that the dissenters should have obtained a great preponderance in that body, and should propose that no clergyman of the Established Church—(I am sure that such a case is not in the least likely to happen, but I put it merely as an illustration)—suppose that the dissenters, having authority in that body, were to propose that no minister of the Established Church should ever be a teacher in their school, it would then be for the board to say—constituted as it would be, first by the three irremovable commissioners, and then by the two responsible ministers of the crown—whether the school applied for should be established under their authority, and under the powers and provisions of this bill, from being a master of which, one of the school rules positively and imperatively excludes any minister of the Established Church.

I will suppose another case, which, I hope, nay, which I am quite sure, is as little likely to happen as the last I have been putting; but suppose there shall be any town-council where, instead of the dissenters having obtained a majority, the churchmen have got it, and that they shall be minded to propose as one of their rules, that no dissenter or any other than a member of the Church of England shall ever be master of the school. The board would then have the power to say to the town-council, "It is utterly impossible we can consent to this. It would be oppressive to the dissenters; intolerable to all who are not members of the church; not creditable to the church itself—nay it would be injurious to the church; therefore, as friends of the establishment, and friends of toleration, it is our bounden duty to refuse our sanction to a school, one of whose rules is of an exclusive and intolerant description." Why then, it may be asked, what would be the

consequence? The majority of the representatives of the rate-payers might say, "We have required to have schools established, and because one of our rules is, that no dissenter shall be a teacher in them, we are refused assistance. Is it not hard that if we chose, as a majority, not to admit a dissenter to be a teacher, we should be deprived of any assistance from the parliamentary grant, and not even suffered to rate ourselves?" To which I would make answer thus. "It is all very well for you who happen to be a majority, that there should exist such a rule, but there happens to be a minority as well as a majority, and I feel it my duty to interpose the shield of the Board of Education to protect that minority, so as to prevent the majority from acting intolerantly towards them, and from excluding them and their children from those very schools to the support of which you, the majority, require the board to give you authority to levy a rate upon that minority." Well, then, what happens? The board refuses to give the council authority to levy a rate. They must be left without a rate, and the parish must be left as it now is, and no school can be established upon this principle. Those who wish to subscribe to a school of their own, where the rule shall be that no churchman, or that no dissenter, as it may happen, shall be the master of the school, may do so according to the voluntary principle out of their own money; but they shall have no portion of a grant from Parliament; they shall have no power to levy a rate for an unjust, unequal, and intolerant purpose. In all these cases, matters would be left as they now are. I believe that such cases would be very rare, and that they are much more likely to arise in argument than to occur in practice. Your lordships will, therefore, perceive that compulsion being excluded, that intolerance being excluded, that the joint operation of the board and the local authorities being required, and the control of the board being only allowed where necessary, and where safe as well as advantageous—it may be truly said, that the voluntary principle, as far as it can be applied, will, according to the disposition and desires of each place, be exercised in applying the powers of this bill for the improvement of the school, and the adoption of just and tolerant measures.

But I shall be asked, as I have been once or twice asked by one for whom I have the greatest possible regard—I mean a noble friend in the other House of Parliament—why, when stating that additional means will be rendered necessary to carry this measure into effect in many places where there are no municipal corporations, I do not take the machinery that is at present existing, instead of introducing new machinery? You have, it is said, the machinery of the new poor law; you have the boards of guardians already formed; and unions are likely to be erected in all those parts of the country where they do not at present exist. The poor law bill, I am told, will sooner or later extend over the whole kingdom; and why not, therefore, take advantage of that important measure, for the purpose of facilitating the establishment of schools under the provisions of this present bill, in places beyond the limits of the municipal corporations?

I think, my lords, I can answer that question very satisfactorily, and

show how utterly it is impossible, with a view to the well-working of this new measure, as well as the right working of the poor law bill itself, to make the junction between them. In the first place, the poor law commissioners are sufficiently worked. The boards of guardians are sufficiently worked already. Indeed, I know of places, where the complaint is made that they do not attend. But I pass that over, for that is really the least of my objections. We have now to rejoice in the event of the poor law bill's entire success in most cases, and in all cases of its succeeding better than I ever expected it would. Though this is certainly not a very popular topic at present, I will not conceal from your lordships my thorough belief that the measure will, in the end, conciliate—that it is absolutely certain of conciliating all classes. But what I value it the most for, is the good which it has already done in bettering the condition of the poor, in elevating the poor man's character, in increasing the poor man's comforts, and above all, in imparting to his character a higher tone of moral feeling, and a greater portion of self-respect. But my lords, notwithstanding my favour of this great measure, and my certain conviction that, in the end, all men, even those who most strenuously oppose and most bitterly denounce it, will be found reconciled to it—nay, further, will be found grateful for it; yet I cannot disguise from myself, nor conceal from your lordships, that, in some considerable districts of the country, instead of receiving the favour which it merits, it has been encountered by a spirit of opposition not confined to the bill itself, but extended to its authors. In those parts of the country it is still what may be properly termed an unpopular measure. But because the new poor law bill is, in some respects, and in some places, unpopular, am I, therefore, to extend any part of its unpopularity, its most unjust unpopularity, to the measure which I am now submitting to your lordships' consideration? No. A general system of education, whether under the bill I now propose, or under any other, cannot possibly be established, much less made universal, over the country, unless the affection and respect of the people are by all possible means conciliated; and it would be one of the least prudent, and least safe, courses that could be taken, to load this new measure, and through its medium to load education generally, with any one atom, however small, of the unpopularity, however unjust, which at present, and only at present, attends the other measure.

In like manner, no doubt, certain controversies, accompanied with great heats and contentions, will at times arise with respect to the administration of the new system of education. The central board may differ from the local authorities—the local authorities may split amongst themselves—disputes no doubt will oftentimes run high, and frequently, perhaps, upon the very question upon which there is the least real ground for difference, and upon which it is most desirable that there should be a perfect harmony of feeling and uniformity of conduct. Against such difficulties the bill cannot provide, because they arise out of the infirmity of human nature. But they are difficulties peculiar to the education measure, and unconnected with the

poor laws. As then I refuse to load my education bill with any of those matters of controversy which belong to the poor law bill, so on the other hand, I will not load the poor law bill with any of the difficulties which are peculiar to the education bill—which may arise out of the education bill—but which cannot by possibility arise out of the administration of the poor law bill, unless some injudicious union of the two systems be attempted. It is my wish, and in the framing of the bill it has been my endeavour, to keep the two measures completely separate. I would not in any way confound them. Foreseeing a sufficient amount of difficulty in the administration of the one, I am most anxious not to introduce into it any of the bitter strife connected with the other.

I now come to that part of the bill which relates to the extension of the new system to those places in which there are no municipal bodies. For this purpose, keeping still to the voluntary principle, which runs through the whole of the plan, I propose, that if any parish or township—for I am now speaking of places which are beyond the boundaries of municipal corporations—chooses to have more schools, or to improve its present schools, it may obtain for itself such a body as shall extend to it the provisions of the bill, and enable it to use the new powers created, through the mutual assent of the local authority and the central board. For this purpose it is provided, that if a given number (five or six for instance) of persons in the parish or township make a requisition to the parish officer, the parish officer shall call a meeting of all persons who like to attend such a meeting. Who those persons are, I will presently state to your lordships. The bulk of them, no doubt, will be the rate-payers and owners of property in the parish or township. When these parties, together with those whom I shall by and by mention, have been summoned and assembled at the meeting convened by the parish officer, this question is to be propounded to them—"Do you choose to have a school committee appointed?" If the majority of them say "No, we do not want it—we have education enough," I do not force it upon them; I leave them as they were, waiting till the general progress of improvement has extended to them, and made them desirous of availing themselves of the utmost advantages that an improved system of education can afford them. If the majority of the meeting do not agree to have a committee, still it may be said amongst them, "We are the friends of education, but yet we think there is power enough here among ourselves—we do not like anything in the shape of government interference, even through the medium of such a board as this—we do not like boards, and we do not like rates—let us remain as we are." Very well, they may remain as they are; the bill will not apply to them; they may continue in the course which they deem best, or which is the most agreeable to them. But if, on the other hand, the majority say, "We want schools, or, the schools which now exist want steadier friends to support them—it is not right that we should allow our education to rest upon such precarious grounds—we want a better system of instruction, and more money for that purpose"—

then, if they choose, they may appoint a school committee, which is to be composed of rate-payers; and the members of the committee so appointed will have the power of levying a rate for school purposes upon the parish. The bill next provides for the manner in which this committee is to act, and defines with much exactitude the limit to be imposed upon the authority of the board on the one hand, and of the school committee on the other.

From the statement I have just made, your lordships will perceive that what the town council are with respect to education in corporate towns, the school committee will be in places which have no corporations; and, further, that, by the institution of the school committees, the system, according to the principle I have already described, will be made quite universal throughout the whole of the country.

And now the question arises, how is the constituency to be formed which is to choose the school committee? Who are to be the voters at the district meeting which chooses the school committee?—I beseech such of your lordships as honour me with your attention upon this important question, not to be staggered with the proposition for the qualification of voters, which I am about to explain; because I begin by stating that it is entirely new, and therefore I know is not likely to find favour in the eyes of some of those whom I address. It may also be objected to by those who are against increasing the weight of the people in their elective capacity. Furthermore, I admit that after it has been once adopted in this measure, it may be extended to other kinds of election;—and I am sure candour can go no further than I am now going. I am raising against myself that which I feel to be the most powerful argument that can be employed against my proposition, and running the risk of alarming such of your lordships as are generally favourable to the bill, by admitting the possible perversion to other uses of the principle I propose to introduce—a principle carrying with it all the startling effects of perfect novelty, with a strong liability to be extended—nay, with a great temptation to be extended to other uses, which many of your lordships will think a perversion and an abuse of it. I admit that this part of the bill is liable to all these objections; but still, with the feelings which I entertain upon the subject, it is utterly impossible that I can do otherwise than incorporate it in any measure upon the subject of education which it may be my lot to bring before the legislature.

Having pointed out the formidable nature of the objections which I am quite sure will be urged against me, and having also adverted, although I hope only for the purpose of warning your lordships against them, to your own feelings, and your own prejudices (if I may take leave to use such a term upon such a subject)—having with that view stated the objections to my principle in their broadest dimensions, and painted my project, I really think, in its very worst colours—may I be permitted to add, in fairness to myself, and to my measure, that the principle to which I have thus adverted, is not so combined with the bill, as to be inseparable from it, if there should be found to exist an invincible repugnance to it; so that those who approve generally

of the rest of the measure, but object to that one portion of it, will not be under the necessity of voting against the whole bill. That part of the bill, if the objection to it shall prove insuperable, may be lopped off and cast away, without injury to the remainder. If your lordships please to tear out that provision of the bill with all the disgust, aversion, and abhorrence that men can entertain towards any proposition, you may do so if you please—it does not necessarily affect the rest of the measure. I hope it has vigour to survive the operation. My first hope is, that the operation will not be performed: but it does not follow that death must ensue. Do your lordships suppose that it is universal suffrage that I propose to introduce? I think that something may be said for universal suffrage in an education bill. The qualification of those who are alone to levy the tax, requires that they shall pay the tax themselves, which they join in levying. I do not propose universal eligibility, or election without qualification, as regards the constitution of the school committee. Not at all. The school committee is to be composed of persons who pay as their neighbours pay, and who have no right to put their hands into their neighbours' pockets, without, at the same time, in the same proportion, putting their hands into their own. So that universal suffrage, if applicable to the education franchise, that is to say, to the franchise for the choice of a school committee, whose duties are to be confined exclusively to the management of school concerns, is not liable to the same objection in this instance, as it would be if applied to the election of members of Parliament; because, the party chosen has the qualification of being a rate-payer himself, although he may be elected by persons who, having no property, pay no rates.

But, in truth, it is not universal suffrage that I am anxious for; I propose a qualification for the franchise—a qualification not only, I am much afraid, infinitely restricted in comparison with universal suffrage—not only a qualification, I am sorry to add, that will exclude a vast portion of my industrious, honest, worthy fellow-citizens, in every part of the country—a qualification that will not only keep out from all concern and all voice in the affairs of any one parish or township, a vast many thousands of those who would in every other respect be most fit to take part in the proceedings of these school committees—but a qualification so restricted, that when I state the nature of it, your lordships will at once perceive how peculiarly appropriate it is where the question is about choosing a committee for superintending the affairs of a school. In a word, I propose an education qualification.

The legislature has given the right of choosing members of Parliament to persons who possess a £10 household franchise, or a 40s. freehold. It has also given a right to choose town-councillors to persons who are rated in any way. Of course my object is, that all those persons who are rated at any amount whatever, shall, in the first place, enjoy the right of voting for the school committee: but then I go farther. I hold that there can be no harm, but every kind of benefit possible, in extending it in the direction I am about to de-

scribe. We want well informed persons; we want persons of sober and industrious habits—men whom we can safely trust—men who are not likely to be led away by their ignorance, or to be debauched by bribery and corruption, to which persons of dissipated habits, and who are not respectable in their life and conversation, so often yield. I propose, then, to take those men who have given a proof that they are of sober habits—that they are of industrious lives—that they are friends to education—that they have made efforts to educate themselves; men who, to a certain extent, have profited by their successful efforts, and have already, to a certain extent, become educated men.

In the first place, I may, perhaps, be asked what test I have that these men are sufficiently educated? and in the next place, it may be inquired how, when I have proved the extent of their education, I propose to unite them with the particular locality in which the provisions of the bill are to be put in force? In reply to these questions, I beg to state, that in order to combine the voters with the locality, I require twelve months' residence. It is provided in the bill that no person having the remainder of the qualification shall be at liberty to use it, unless he has also been resident in the parish or township for the full period of twelve months.

These, then, are the persons who, independent of the rate-payers, will be admitted to the franchise. The board will have the power of enrolling, by an act of its own, all Mechanics' Institutions, all Associations for Education, all Literary Societies for all classes, and all Education Societies for all classes, under certain restrictions and according to certain rules; so that all persons who have, for a certain time, been members of those most useful, most meritorious bodies—all persons who, for a certain time, have devoted themselves to the affairs of those societies and associations, and thus promoted the education of others or improved their own—all those persons, having passed a certain time in such courses, shall have a right to vote, each in the parish in which he resides, for the members of the school committee. I go a step further. I propose to extend this privilege to all persons, of whatever rank, who have been educated at either of the universities, at the inns of court, at the inns of chancery, at the public schools, or any schools whatever enrolled and connected with the board, and of all classes of the community whatever, be they high, middle, or low—I propose that all these persons, the time they have spent at school being taken as a guarantee that they are not ignorant, illiterate, uneducated and dissolute persons, shall, after a year's residence, be admitted to the right of voting on the school affairs of the town, parish, or district in which a school committee shall be appointed.

I have thus detailed, boldly, and at once, all the points of the bill upon which I anticipate the strongest opposition. The principle of election which I last explained is, I know, the most formidable. I might have omitted it altogether—I might have left the franchise in country districts and in unincorporated towns upon the same footing as that upon which it already stands. But as I entertain now, and

have always entertained, a very strong opinion in favour of this kind of encouragement to education, in favour of this species of indirect—I cannot call it compulsory—furthering of education—as I have always had a very strong opinion of the merits, the transcendent merits of those industrious classes, who, to their immortal honour, struggling with every disadvantage—struggling against narrow circumstances and cramped means—struggling against the difficulties and the disadvantages that result from an imperfect education—struggling against the obstacles and impediments presented by those who would discourage them in their efforts to improve, from a foolish and preposterous jealousy of their treading upon their own heels; and who, for that cause, would prevent them rising in society by the best and most meritorious ladder, mental superiority—who, labouring and struggling under all these disadvantages and discouragements, still occupy the highest place in the estimation of those who look at man beneath the surface—with the heartfelt respect which I have always cherished for those persons—with the affection and love which I entertain for those classes from a long and intimate knowledge of them, and from a deep and daily increasing sense of their transcendent merit, both of understanding and honesty, and I must be permitted to add, of genuine independence;—I believe I should not have discharged my duty, nor have acted fairly towards my own feelings and my principles, nor fairly towards the persons I have mentioned, nor fairly towards this great catholic measure of education, if I had not in the outset declared and explained the nature of the principles I have been desirous of introducing into it, and which I anxiously hope will be permitted to receive the sanction of the legislature.

I prefer making the statement boldly and at once, because I know I should not have been able to press the bill through another stage without the necessity of apologizing to your lordships for having, in the first instance, avoided any allusion to so new and so important a principle. But I take leave to add, that I have never concealed from your lordships, for the last two or three years, the strong impression which prevails, in my mind, of the necessity, as I stated the other night, of a material extension of the elective franchise, properly so called. I speak, now, not of the school franchise, but of the Parliamentary franchise. The Parliamentary franchise, it is true, has nothing to do with the measure I am now bringing forward, and ought properly, no doubt, to be altogether excluded from your consideration upon this occasion. If I advert to it at all it is for the purpose of reminding your lordships of what I stated a few nights ago, and which has, elsewhere, been most unaccountably misunderstood. It is said that the idea of a further extension of the suffrage is a new opinion which I have recently taken up—an opinion that I have never advanced before. Why, I stated the very same thing in the last session of Parliament. I declared, only a few months ago, standing in my place in this House, my deliberate opinion, that to amend a few of the details of the reform bill would not be sufficient, but that it would be absolutely necessary to extend the right of voting. I have got no

new light upon the subject, although I believe others have. I hold, now, the same opinions that I held the last session, and which I have just declared, or rather repeated. At the close of the session, I expressly and explicitly stated what my opinions upon this point were; in July last, I entered upon an extensive correspondence to ascertain the proportion of persons excluded from voting; and only about six weeks ago, I repeated the same opinions again, in a letter addressed by me to the people of Manchester. To say, therefore, that I have received anything like a new light upon the subject, is a mere forgetfulness of the whole facts of the case; and I should not be doing full justice to other persons, nor common justice to myself, if I did not take this opportunity of alluding to the erroneous statement. But this has no connection with the Education Bill, the franchise conferred by which is, as I have already explained, a very ample extension of the franchise as it is given either by the reform bill or the municipal corporation bill. That part of the bill, however, which relates to the franchise is separable from the rest. It mixes itself up with none of the other details of the measure. It appears to me to be a great improvement; and I hope and trust the bill will not pass without it: but if any man object to it, unless he be averse to the rest of the bill upon other grounds, he will have no right to endeavour to defeat the whole measure on account of any disinclination or aversion which he may feel for this part of the proposition: it can with ease be separated from the remainder.

I have not introduced the vote by ballot; I do not consider that the vote by ballot would be applicable to this subject. My opinions upon the extension of the Parliamentary franchise have undergone no change. I have stated formerly to your lordships, and I now again repeat it, that I think the Parliamentary franchise ought to be greatly extended. My opinion upon the ballot has undergone some change, and I am not ashamed nor afraid to avow it. I still think that the ballot will afford no protection to the tenant; I still think that it will be inefficacious to the protection of the tenant even in towns; but, at the same time, I cannot shut my eyes to the fearful position in which the working of the bill has placed another class of voters, who deserve protection as well as the tenants—I mean the inhabitants of the towns, the honest tradesmen, who dare to vote as their conscience dictates. Therefore it is, that, I have come to the opinion that the ballot must be tried, unless some other measure can be devised and passed for the protection of that valuable class of the community. Having come to this opinion with the utmost reluctance—having had all along, for reasons which I need not now repeat nor explain, because I oftentimes adverted to them in the other House of Parliament—having throughout the whole of my life entertained a degree of repugnance and aversion for the ballot, which I have never found words sufficiently strong to express; nothing but an absolute uncontrollable necessity—nothing but the total want of any other remedy—nothing but the despair of finding (after so many fruitless attempts have been made) even the shadow of a protection to the honest and conscientious voter, in

any other direction, or from any other quarter—nothing short of this could have persuaded me to overcome my great dislike of that measure. The experience of the last two or three years, and more particularly of the last election, compels me, with great reluctance, to become a convert; and I do not hesitate to avow my conversion. However I do not think that any necessity exists for introducing the ballot in school elections. Here I think, the common mode of voting would be preferable. At all events, I expect it will succeed. Whether your lordships and the other House of Parliament shall be of opinion that the education suffrage shall be adopted to its full extent, or with restrictions and modifications, or shall be omitted altogether, leaving the rate-payers only to elect the school committee—in either case I am quite sure that there will be no necessity to prescribe any other than the ordinary mode of election in the choice of those local bodies.

I have now stated the outline of all the provisions of this measure. I am perfectly ready to admit that it is one of considerable extent, in many respects new, and in all respects dealing with interests of the highest importance. I think that the more your lordships consider its details, and the principles upon which it proceeds, the more it will be found to deserve the name which I last year gave it, namely, a measure for the purpose of doing all that is wanted for the education of the people, without doing more; of interfering on the part of the legislature and the government as far as is necessary, and no further; a measure for reconciling all individual desires and all local interests, and interfering with none; supplanting nobody, suppressing no efforts, and giving rise to no vexatious heartburnings or jealousies, but simply consulting the improvement of the people, and the bettering of their condition, without at all interfering with their domestic affairs, or endeavouring to force those who, to be really improved, ought only to be enticed and drawn. It is a bill which reconciles many apparent inconsistencies, and establishes forms, amounting, in the whole, to one great universal system of education, as far as anything systematic can be applied to a country, the diversities of whose local circumstances are so great and various as they are in England.

If, in bringing forward a measure upon this subject, I had overlooked or neglected the great number of schools already established, the great amount of charitable funds applicable to the purposes of education, the unequal distribution of those funds, and the state of the country with respect to its religious denominations; if, neglecting all these circumstances, I had at once framed a plan upon some general, systematic, symmetrical principle, it would have appeared far more plausible to your lordships, much more beautiful to contemplate, much more deserving the name of a system, much more entitled to the useless praise of symmetry and proportion; but when it came to be worked, it would have been found applicable perfectly to no place, repugnant to the feelings, and irreconcilable to the interests of many places, and in almost all places, less advantageous than a measure founded upon the principles upon which I have now presented my plan to your lordships' notice. I entreat your attention to the subject; I anxiously hope for

the support of the country, and for the support, above all, of those who have been the steady, the zealous, the indomitable friends of education for all classes and all sects.

That there should be any clause in a measure of this sort excluding religious instruction, no man in his sober senses could ever for a moment dream. That there should be no exclusion of religious instruction, but that, on the contrary, there should be a direct recognition of it, is my very decided opinion. I certainly am one of those who think that the bill should contain, in positive and express terms, a provision, that in all schools founded, extended, or improved under the bill, the Scriptures shall be read. Accordingly, I have inserted a clause to that effect. When I say that the Scriptures are one of the books which should be read in these schools, I of course mean that it should not be the only book read there; far from it; God forbid!—for the sake of religion and of the Bible itself, God forbid!—but that, as a part of the reading in such schools, the Holy Scriptures should be used, with a proviso, of course, that any children of Jewish or Roman Catholic parents, attending such schools, shall not be required to be present when the authorized version is read, unless the parent shall desire it, is my clear opinion, and I have framed the provision upon it. I have no doubt that this is fit and proper to be added to the bill; and I am certain that it will still all differences upon the subject of a national system of education.

I have sanguine hopes of the success of this measure. If it be well administered—if education continue popular in this country—if nothing be done to raise the spirit either of political faction, or, above all, of religious discord, in the course of the passing of the bill—and if, after it has passed and come into operation, those feelings shall continue which take their rise out of a common, and universal, and truly wise, as well as truly Christian regard for the right instruction of the people—then, I verily believe, that the legislature which has passed the measure, will be acknowledged in all time to come, as having bestowed the greatest blessing that ever lawgiver conferred upon a nation, and all generations of mankind, in all ages, pointing to this Parliament, will magnify and venerate its name.

S P E E C H
UPON THE
BILL FOR ABOLISHING SUBSCRIPTION
IN THE
UNIVERSITIES OF OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE,
DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,
AUGUST 1, 1834.

I **RISE**, my lords, to deliver my opinion upon this important question, which has excited, both within the doors of Parliament and without, an extraordinary, but not disproportionate, degree of interest; and my principal object in addressing you at the present period of the debate is, that I may, if possible, recall your lordships to that which is the real question before you. For I have observed that, one after another, the noble lords who have addressed you upon this subject, have begun by complaining that my noble friend who opened the question, digressed—as those noble persons were pleased to say—into matters not connected with the question; and then they themselves—the complainers—without any exception, or at the utmost with the exception only of the illustrious duke and the noble duke,* the chancellors of the two universities, committed, in the course of their addresses, the error of digression, which they attributed, most incorrectly, to my noble friend. All of these noble lords have set themselves to discuss a question which is not before the House, and particularly, I will say, the most reverend prelate† who last addressed your lordships, whose argument has been logical, conclusive, full of illustration, abounding in facts, and conveying much information respecting the course of study at the universities, particularly at Oxford; but who, throughout, was arguing an abstract proposition or thesis, and

* Duke of Wellington.
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† Archbishop of Canterbury.

not discussing the question actually before us,—Whether the dissenters shall be allowed to matriculate in the one university, as they are now allowed in the other, and to take degrees in both. But the speculative question, which alone his grace argued, is never likely to come before us—Whether or not it is expedient that there should be a disconnection between the education and discipline of the university and the established religion of the country. I will presently show your lordships that no two questions can be more distinct, more utterly independent of each other than these two, and that he who votes to-night for the second reading of the bill, may to-morrow, if he thinks fit, most consistently, and without the violation of any principle whatever, object to any measure for altering the internal discipline of these two learned bodies, and for severing them from the established church.

I must first remind you of what it is that this measure seeks—what it proposes to effect—what, I am afraid I must add, with my noble friend at the head of the government,* it will not very efficaciously or very certainly accomplish, and also what is the real practical grievance that has occasioned its introduction. To begin with the last of these points, which is the first in the natural order of the subject. The noble duke,† the chancellor of the University of Oxford, has argued as if everything was going on at Oxford as well as possible—as if, at all times, all matters there had been upon a footing perfectly satisfactory—as if no complaint was heard, and as if no occasion for complaining existed. Giving this assumption the benefit of much repetition, if it had no other help, he again and again said, “When all is so satisfactory, why interfere to make these changes;—why force a measure of this kind upon the universities when nobody complains—when nobody has a right to complain—when everything is as good as possible in this best of possible systems?” I am a practical man, like the noble duke. I am here for no speculative purpose whatever; I am here to moot no abstract question; nor to ask your lordships for any hypothetical vote upon an imaginary case. I am here upon a practical measure, introduced and to be supported, if supported at all, upon this specific ground, that it is reckoned a remedy in practice for a grievance which is practically felt. Remove that ground from under my feet, and I have none whereon to stand, and shall be disposed not only to move that this bill be read a second time this day six months, but even to meet it with the previous question, the most approved Parliamentary mode of giving a negative to an unpalatable, or to a vain and needless abstract question. If it be not a practical grievance, that because a man happens conscientiously to differ from you upon religious questions—you being, from conviction, members of the Church of England, and he, from the like conviction, dissenting from its doctrines,—that, because, while you, from conscientiously approving of its doctrines and its discipline, subscribe to the one, and yield to the other, he, from as conscientious a persuasion, refuses his assent to either, without any interest, but against his interest—(for even

* Earl Grey.

† Duke of Wellington.

if all tests are removed, he dissents from the established church to his inevitable injury in many respects);—if, I say, it be not a practical grievance that he who, against his interest, and on account of his conscience alone, cannot, unless he play the hypocrite, adopt your doctrines and submit to your discipline, is, for that reason, and that only reason, excluded from some of the most valuable temporal rights which a citizen can enjoy;—if that be not a practical grievance, then I admit that there is no foundation whatever for the present measure. But, first of all, is it nothing, that the man who conscientiously dissents from the doctrine and discipline of the Church of England cannot educate his children, or if he be a young man, cannot himself receive the advantages of education, at either of the two most illustrious, most ancient, and most justly renowned seminaries of public instruction in the whole civilized world? Is it nothing that, in order to obtain the advantages of education, either for himself or for his son, he must resort to other countries at a great expense, and undergo, besides, a species of banishment, instead of being admitted to institutions which you yourselves, by way of giving my argument greater force, and of stamping the grievance of the dissenter with evidence of greater value, are the first to boast, are infinitely better than any other seminaries established, or ever likely to be formed, in this country? Is that no practical grievance? From all these sources of education the dissenter and his family are cautiously and scrupulously excluded, because he conscientiously differs from you upon certain abstract points of religion, not perhaps very material in themselves, but which, as long as the exclusion continues, he is sure to think most important, and sure never to abandon. But the grievance does not stop here. Has the professional man, if he be a dissenter, no reason to complain? Is it nothing that he should be excluded from the possibility of belonging to one of the most useful, most liberal, and most lucrative professions to which the King's subjects can devote themselves? Is it nothing that for this profession he cannot be educated at all at Oxford, the doors of that university being closed against him from the first; and that at Cambridge his course is arrested just at the period when his education can be, professionally, of any avail to him? Is it nothing that a doctor of medicine a dissenter cannot be, either at Oxford or at Cambridge; but, in order to obtain this degree, he must resort either to Paris or Pavia, to Edinburgh or Glasgow? Some noble lords, perhaps, of large incomes, and knowing nothing of pecuniary difficulties but by report, may think this nothing; but let me remind your lordships, that the rule which says, "because you are not a member of the Church of England, you cannot be an English physician without going abroad for two or three years, and obtaining, in some foreign university, a doctor's degree," is a law savouring of persecution—a law entailing upon the subjects of the realm the very practical grievance of expense which they may be unable to defray, and of banishment which they must dislike to endure;—and all because they are honest, conscientious, and pious men. Then what does the bill propose to do? This, and nothing more:—It abrogates

whatever practice tends to exclude from matriculation at Oxford, or from graduating at either university, by exacting subscription to the articles of the Church of England,—it declares that this ceremony shall no longer be required in either of those learned bodies. In other words, it proposes that the dissenters shall be allowed, without any religious test, to matriculate at one, and to graduate at both universities, if, in every other respect, they are fit for being entered to learn, and for taking degrees to practice. It is the greatest fallacy to suppose that the measure imposes any force upon the universities, or compels them to grant degrees to dissenters. How, indeed, could it—or how could any measure do so? The colleges or universities which have now the power of conferring those distinctions will still have the power of giving or withholding them as they shall think fit, in the circumstances of each particular case. The young students may still be refused admission, and the probationers degrees, whether they belong to the church or to the sects; but both will be admitted and excluded equally, because the test will be, as it ought, desert, and not religion. All that the bill proposes is to save the universities themselves from what must be the inevitable consequence in the end, of making subscription a condition precedent to the admission of a student in the case of the one university, and in the case of both universities a condition precedent to the taking of a degree; namely, that other rival seminaries will rise upon the ruin of those ancient bodies. It proposes that they shall enter into competition with all new establishments on fair and equal terms, and disencumbered of this test, which is at once a grievance to those whom it excludes—and let me add, persecutes—and a serious drawback to the universities themselves who exclude them. I have thought it necessary to remind your lordships of these things, trite and familiar though they be. But I confess if I had not heard the assertion of the noble duke, that there was no ground of complaint against the universities, and especially the University of Oxford, I should not have felt justified in going over even the heads of the subject, stating the nature of the practical grievance complained of, describing the manner in which it operates, or showing how the bill proposes to remedy it.

I feel, however, in common with my noble friend at the head of the government, that there is in the measure a considerable defect; for if the universities will not regard the question in the light in which I view it—if they do not feel the restraints which they impose to be oppressive—if they do not think their fetters galling, even to themselves—if, closing their eyes to what is really not only just and liberal towards others, but conducive to their own interests, they persevere to the uttermost in that system of exclusion which has hitherto rendered them less useful and also less flourishing than they might otherwise have been—then I agree with my noble friend, that any measure of this sort, not receiving a cordial and well-natured reception from the learned bodies, will be but imperfectly executed; and, consequently, that the dissenters will not benefit so much by the change of the law as if the matter had originated with the universities themselves, or as

if some middle course, suited to the views of both parties, had been struck out and agreed to by them. I am the more strongly led to this conclusion because, as I have already stated, this measure cannot by possibility compel the universities to admit any one student, whether he be a dissenter or a member of the Church of England, unless they think fit so to do; neither can it, under any circumstances, compel either university to grant a degree to any person whatever, whether he be a sectary or a churchman. Therefore it is perfectly certain, that after the bill shall have passed into a law, the dissenter may be as thoroughly excluded as he is at present, by some internal rule, or some understanding adopted by either or both of those learned bodies. Not that I think with the noble earl* who spoke to-night for the first time, and who has signalized his accession to this House by the expression of some truly astonishing opinions with respect to the Catholic and other questions, considering the quarter they come from;—not that I quite go along with the noble earl in supposing, that if this bill should pass, and become the law of the land, it would be treated at Oxford and Cambridge as against conscience, and not be obeyed at all. I think better of those learned bodies. I think better of them than some noble lords who cheered this strange doctrine, and who seemed to join in the wish the noble earl expressed to see academical resistance. I think better of the prudence of those bodies than to suppose, that what the King and the two Houses of Parliament have declared to be the law of the land, will be openly rejected by them, and a statute of the realm treated as waste paper. What I do apprehend is, not any open resistance, but a simulated obedience, an outward and unreal compliance with the provisions of the law. And as “men convinced against their will,” are proverbially said to be of “the same opinion still,” I think that many dissenters, known to be such, would not be admitted at all into one of the universities, and would not be allowed to take degrees at either. All that this bill does is to prevent the universities from requiring subscription to the Thirty-nine Articles; and this leads me to an opinion expressed by the illustrious duke, the Chancellor for the University of Cambridge, in a private conversation with which he condescended to honour me, and in my recollection of which I entirely concur with his royal highness. I regret that instead of framing a measure of this kind, which I think will not prove perfectly efficacious, though I highly approve of its principle, subscribing as I do to the abrogation of all tests, yet entertaining much doubt of the efficacy of the measure to accomplish its avowed purpose—I regret that these learned bodies, knowing the state of the public mind upon the subject, have not adopted some internal regulation of their own, which would have prevented the necessity of any appeal to Parliament. I agree with the illustrious duke, that if Oxford would put herself on the same footing as Cambridge, even as relates to matriculation alone, a great point would be gained to the dissenters, and nothing sacrificed, but rather much

* Lord Carnarvon.

gained by the university. But if, in addition to the extended power of matriculating, both the universities would consent to grant degrees, and especially medical degrees, without requiring the condition of subscription to the Thirty-nine Articles; I think that the great bulk of the grievance would be practically removed. I draw a distinction between the case of medical men and lawyers; because, although I do not forget that a lawyer, with the degree of master of arts, may be called to the bar three years after his admission to an inn of court, instead of waiting five years, yet that is a mere private regulation of the four societies, which they can, without any difficulty at all, alter to-morrow; for they may at once provide that a residence of a certain number of years at the university, namely, the period required for a master's degree, should stand in the stead of that degree, in so far as regards admission to the bar, and dispense with two years' entrance on the books of the different inns of court; so that the only practical grievance as regards master of arts' degrees would cease.

There is another matter connected with the admission of dissenters to the universities, which I think is much more encumbered with doubt, but still I throw it out for consideration. I refer to the expediency and the justice of admitting persons not belonging to the established church, to all the privileges consequent upon their attendance at the universities, beside the right to obtain degrees. And here I particularly allude, not to their acquiring any share in the government of the universities—that is a matter which might be easily arranged—but to the right of having fellowships and scholarships. The difficulty upon that point is considerable; and I have no hesitation in saying, strong advocate of the dissenters as I have ever been, that I see opinions expressed in some of their petitions, which show that those excellent persons, in putting forward their claim, have not well weighed the reasons for which fellowships were, for the most part, endowed. The dissenters have no more right, strictly speaking, to admission to fellowships and scholarships, endowed by the founders for the benefit of the Established Church, than any member of the Church of England would have a right to share in the endowments founded at Highbury or Homerton, Maynooth or Stonyhurst, or any other dissenting college, catholic or protestant. The individuals out of whose private funds fellowships and scholarships were endowed, had a perfect right to prescribe what restrictions they thought proper as to the disposal of those funds, and no dissenter has any more right to complain of being excluded from them, than he has to complain of exclusion from any private charity, supported by members of the Church of England. But so little are some of the dissenters aware of this, that, to my utter astonishment, a noble friend of mine, only a short time since, presented petitions from several bodies of non-conformists, complaining not only of exclusion from the universities, but also of exclusion from the national schools supported by voluntary subscriptions. Now, if any one choose to subscribe his money to a national school, I conceive he has a perfect right to prescribe the rules upon which that school shall be conducted, and to say, if he thinks

fit (though I certainly should not say so), that no dissenter shall be allowed to enter it. Thus far, then, I differ from the dissenters; these are errors into which they have fallen; but their being wrong upon these trifling points is anything rather than an argument for undervaluing their reasons upon the great body of the question—in which, in my clear and unhesitating opinion, they are upon every principle of justice, as well as sound policy, strictly correct. And I am thus led to say a few words upon subscription in general.

The noble duke maintains, that the union between church and state stands upon peculiar ground; that it is very much talked of, but very little understood; and that he suspects many of your lordships (until he explained it) had formed very incorrect opinions with respect to it. Now, before I go further—before I give the noble duke's explanation—I must observe, that the talk about the union of church and state has got into the discussion of this question, with which, in point of fact, it has nothing whatever to do, in an extraordinary manner. It has been introduced, not by the churchmen, but by the dissenters themselves; and this is certainly the first time that I ever heard the cry raised among the dissenters for any such thing as the separation of church and state. Previously, with greater wisdom and discretion, they prayed the legislature simply to remove those restrictions which they felt to be oppressive upon themselves; but in their present petitions, many of them pray for the establishment of what they call a Voluntary Church, in place of the existing establishment; and to describe this, they employ a vague, indefinite, and fantastical form of expression, the meaning of which it is not difficult to comprehend, but the inaccuracy of which is manifest. I know very well what the dissenters mean by it; but if I had not known it before, I should not have been much enlightened by the explanation which the noble duke has given us. He asks your lordships, with some self-complacency, whether you are aware of the true meaning of the words "union in church and state;" and he says that the union typifies the spiritual connection between the church and the state; and so he thinks he has opened the dark passage most satisfactorily. But, unhappily, this explanation, though it may do well enough for England and Ireland, will not do at all for Great Britain; because, in Scotland, the King is not the head of the church any more than the Pope; and every good Presbyterian holds it as an article of faith, that the king can have no authority whatever over the Kirk. Therefore, in Scotland, according to the noble duke's explanation, the words "union between church and state," have positively and absolutely no meaning at all—and yet, to show the noble duke that the expression is used just as much there as elsewhere, the petitions from Scotland upon claims of the dissenters, are couched in the very same language as those from England and Ireland, and our northern brethren call out as lustily as the dissenters among ourselves for an end of that union between church and state, to which so many ills are ascribed; so that the good people of Scotland cannot possibly have acted upon the noble duke's view of the meaning of the words, because to them his explanation must be utterly unintelligible—or if they could be

brought to comprehend it, they would absolutely deny the present existence of such an abomination as they regard the headship of the church and state being united in one person. It is singular enough, that the origin of the phrase in question may be traced to a very high quarter for talent and learning—namely, Bishop Warburton—he, if I mistake not, was the author of the phrase. But Bishop Warburton was not for the alliance of the Church of England (of which he was at all times an eloquent and strenuous defender) with the state, because it was the church he belonged to, and of which he approved—his doctrine was, that the state must ally itself with whatever is the church of the majority. That right reverend logician counted noses; and, as in England he was for the union of an Episcopalian king with an Episcopalian church—so in Scotland he would have been for the union of a Presbyterian king with a Presbyterian church, and in Ireland, for the union of a Catholic king with a Catholic hierarchy.

But, my lords, whatever be the meaning of the phrase in its original, and how decided soever may be my reprobation of the alliance which it seems to import, and on which I entirely agree with Dr. Paley—in the sense intended by these petitioners, I am as clearly a friend to that union; because I will do nothing to pull down the establishment, or to countenance proceedings having that for their aim. Such being my feeling towards the church, I am for warding off all danger that may assail it, and from all quarters; and therefore, in these times, when I know the weight which the dissenters have acquired in the community, not only by their respectability, their talents, and the rich accomplishments that adorn so many of them, but by their great and increasing numbers, their ample and growing wealth, I am not desirous of augmenting or perpetuating their enmity against the establishment, because I am clearly of opinion that nothing can more tend to undermine its security. My hostility to anything that can injure the church, and my partiality for every measure that is likely to consolidate her strength, and make her outworks more impregnable to assault, lead me, without hesitation, to adopt that policy which would get rid of all her admitted imperfections, remove all just grounds of complaint against her privileges, and reconcile the dissenters to her rights, by making them compatible with their own; and I feel quite confident, that no one measure will tend more to work this wholesome reconciliation, than the complete removal of all secular disqualifications on account of religious opinions.

My lords, reference has been made this evening to the subject of subscription, which was on a former occasion discussed at large. The noble duke* has pronounced, that nothing could be clearer than the explanation of the doctrine given by a right reverend prelate on a former occasion. It meant, he says, that a boy, between the ages of twelve and sixteen, subscribed the articles of faith and religion, as they are denominated by the Oxford statute, without being supposed to express any opinion upon their truth; but only that he professed to

* Duke of Wellington.

be a member of the Church of England—that he described himself as belonging to a Church of England family—and that he promised, as soon as he was able, to study the articles, and, if he could, to understand and believe them. Now, I demur, at the outset, to this opinion of the noble duke. I really think he has coupled with his definition an adjunct which the authors of the statute never thought of—namely, that the boy who subscribes professes to belong to a Church of England family. Surely the noble duke will not pretend, that if a boy were a member of a non-conforming family, he would be rejected, and forbidden to subscribe the articles, when ready and willing to do so. No such thing; if he belonged to a dissenting family, or to a family of no religion at all—nay, if he belonged to no family at all—he would still be allowed to enter the universities, on subscribing the Thirty-nine Articles. Well, then, it seems a boy does not exercise his judgment upon these articles, but only promises that he will endeavour to understand them, and upon understanding, will make up his mind whether to believe or not. First, only observe the clumsiness—the preposterous clumsiness of such a mode of accomplishing the object, if that really be the thing intended to be done. Would it not be better to make the boy subscribe to three plain, honest, and intelligible lines, in language which both he and every one else could comprehend—language, to which neither he nor any one could affix a wrong meaning?—"I declare that I shall, as soon as I am able, study the Thirty-nine Articles, and if I can understand them, and conscientiously give my assent to them, I will subscribe to them." This would be clear and fair—it would be an act and a declaration incapable of deceiving either the party or the by-stander. But instead of this, your course is to subscribe first, and study afterwards—first to swallow, and afterwards to digest—to begin by what must mean a profession of believing—to end by learning their sense, and judging of their worth. For what does this subscribing of the Thirty-nine Articles really mean? Does it—can it mean anything else, at least to ninety-nine persons out of every hundred—than that the name is signed to those articles, because the subscribers have an opinion, or at least profess to have an opinion, in their favour?

But it is said, that after all there is no harm done, because there is another stage, namely, after the lad has obtained the age of sixteen, when he is required to do something more—to make a declaration explicitly of his belief in those articles; and this, it is contended, shows, that when he was under sixteen years of age, his subscription did not import any such belief. But, then, how am I to understand the absolute necessity of subscribing when the boy is above twelve, since the statute says he shall be admitted to matriculation without subscribing, only when he is under twelve years of age? The most reverend prelate passed swiftly over this part of the statute—saying it was a mere parenthesis of no moment. I deny it. Upon that single parenthesis I take my stand, and between its two horns, as it were a dilemma, I am minded to place the most reverend prelate and his argument, with all imaginable respect and kindness towards him. Because, what is

it that happens before twelve years of age, and what is it that must take place immediately after twelve? This is the very criterion of the argument: it is the test by which I try and destroy the explanation of his grace, and set up my own explanation in its place; for it demonstratively shows, that after twelve years of age, the reason of a boy is understood to be exercised, and an opinion to be formed, which was not supposed before. The case stands thus:—After sixteen, those who present themselves for matriculation are to subscribe, to declare their belief in the articles, to take the oath of supremacy, and also to take an oath to observe the statutes, privileges, and customs of the university. Between the age of twelve and sixteen, the boys who present themselves for matriculation are to subscribe only, without declaration or oaths; but under twelve they are not even to subscribe; —“*Quod si duodecimum annum non excesserint, in matriculam duntaxat referentur.*” If it only stood thus, the case would be proved. But the statute goes on to make that still more clear, which was clear enough; stating that, for anything beyond matriculation, the students shall “wait till they come to be of such mature years” that they may be called upon to comply with the other requisites. In other words, subscriptions shall not be required before the maturity of understanding, which is supposed to come at twelve years of age, when they are deemed competent to subscribe, because competent to understand and form an opinion. Many men may quarrel with the age thus fixed. Many may entertain a doubt, whether twelve years is the period fit to be assigned for all individuals comprehending the hundreds of abstruse points involved in the Thirty-nine Articles. But no man can doubt the construction of this statute; no man can deny that something is assumed by it to be implied by subscription, beyond a mere promise to understand the articles when the party comes to a mature age.

My lords, I cannot help thinking that, in whatever way subscription may be understood, the practical question for us to consider is, not the nature of subscription, but the consequences which it entails upon those whom it excludes, and the odium, and indeed contempt, which it brings upon the ceremonies it is intended to sanctify. In a word, it is liable to all the objections that can be urged against tests, with this addition, a great aggravation, unquestionably, that it is a test applied to the young and ignorant, whom it must influence, if not bind in after-life,—that it was taken at an age when its import was far beyond the grasp of their comprehension. As a test, then, and the worst kind of test, I entirely abominate it. I was perfectly astonished, however, to hear the noble lord,* who spoke last, signalize his accession to this House by panegyricizing, after a most elaborate fashion, tests of all sorts, and pour out one laborious period after another, to extol them as a positive good and an excellence in themselves. According to him they are the foundation of our faith—they are the security of our church—they are the safeguard of our religion—they are the specific blessings, without which we should cease to have any religion at all.

* Lord Carnarvon.

And all this they are, according to so judicious a eulogist, because other countries which have no religious tests, are void of all the excellencies that adorn us. The noble earl here alluded, in no very measured terms of abuse, to the German universities. Now, I must say, that I do not like these general charges against millions of people, and all their most famous seats of learning—those seats, in which some of the greatest men that have adorned the letters of any age were reared—those academic groves, the growth of which have been achievements in science that illustrated their country, nay, lifted up the species itself. I do not like to see those renowned nations thus handed over to the influence of one unsparing anathema, and charged with infidelity and even atheism, simply because they know nothing of religious tests. Religious tests! Good God! Reflect for one moment, how, from its very nature, a religious test must be the personification of impotence itself! How can any test keep out of any situation he aspires to, any but the conscientious man? The test is pointed against the conscientious man in reality, though it professes to be contrived for his protection. Such a man will not take it; and it is only because he is an honest man that he will not. He is excluded; while the knave, who has no conscience at all, or whose conscience is seared as with a hot iron, will swallow all the tests that can be imposed, either by the statutes of the realm, or those imitative statutes which the universities have framed. The meaning of a test is—not that you shall be excluded unless you believe, but that you shall be excluded unless you *say* you believe—not “unless you are one of us, you shall have none of our good things”—but “*pretend* to be one of us, and you shall have what you want.” It is not addressed to a man’s conscience, his honest religious opinion—it is addressed to his sordid propensities—to his feelings of self-interest—it is an appeal to his pocket, not his heart—it is a security taken from the very vilest arts of his nature—his desire of vain distinctions, and his love of pelf. The moment your test meets with the man to exclude whom it was devised, it becomes utterly powerless—he swallows it up whole, in the twinkling of an eye—the gates, shut for his exclusion, fly open to receive him—and he exultingly wishes the test were twice as strong, as the man upon his preferment wished there were sixty-nine articles instead of thirty-nine, that he might subscribe them all at the same rate of gain. As for the German universities, the theme of the noble lord’s abuse, I will venture to say, naming no names, that you could not invent a test so strong, that you could not devise a form so stringent, that some of those German professors, of whom he just now spoke, would not vault over as easily as the most conscientious churchman he can produce would pass beneath it. But I do not choose to use these invidious topics touching the imperfections of foreigners; nor do I approve much of this habit of praising ourselves at the expense of others, which that noble earl, like many others, has acquired. If he thinks it shows off his power of turning sentences to advantage, he may dwell on the superiority of our manufactures, of our commerce, of our ingenuity, and what not—but of our moral and religious character it hardly

becomes us to speak in such laudatory terms. I have often had occasion to observe, that though many men may doubt whether we are the greatest people in the world, though it may be a question if we are the most learned, the most ingenious, and the wisest of nations, yet there is one thing of which no man can doubt—and it is a great and felicitous advantage we possess—that we are undeniably and beyond all question, of all the people in the world, the easiest and the best pleased with ourselves; the nation which possesses the most entirely its own esteem—regards itself as the most immeasurably superior to all the rest of mankind. In this we stand without a rival; and you shall hardly ever hear a young speaker begin his career in either House of Parliament, without a score of periods to magnify our own perfections, and underrate the merits of all our neighbours. Surely it is very agreeable to revel in the praise we thus make, and make wholly for our own consumption; to devour, as it were, the luscious sweet at the very instant of its formation, till we are absolutely glutted and swollen with it. Nothing, therefore, surprised me in this laudation of the noble earl except the ground he took to rest it on. I certainly had long heard of our infinite superiority to all the world, but I did not till now know that it was owing to the blessing of the tests which we enjoy. If it be true that the glory of the country depends upon them, I shall give them up with a pang; but I must remind the noble earl, that we need not go to the metaphysicians of Germany for instances of persons whom no test can ever scare from promotion in the church, or from any other place to which their ambition may aspire. What think you of some of our own most distinguished countrymen, all of them members of the universities, and all subscribers to the Thirty-nine Articles? What think you of Dr. Middleton of Trinity College, one of its most learned members, and not certainly one of the most powerful advocates for the church, or, indeed, for the Christian religion itself? Him no test ever scared; the very nature of his argument, the kind of artillery with which he attacked religion, showed that he would swallow any test that statute could invent, or college propose to him. No man who reads the writings of David Hume can have the slightest idea, that, if any test whatever had been tendered to that celebrated metaphysician, but not very religious man, he would have scrupled for one second of time about taking it. How could you bind, by declaration or subscription, the writer who closes his celebrated argument against all miracles with the well-known passage,—“Our most holy religion rests not on reason, but on faith; and he who believes in it is conscious of a perpetual miracle in his own person, which subverts all the principles of his understanding.”

I need not remind your lordships of Shaftesbury—of Bolingbroke—of Wilkes—for to them I have on other occasions adverted, as persons notoriously of infidel principles, and whom tests were so far from excluding, that they habitually subscribed the statutory declarations “on the true faith of a Christian.” Indeed, it seems almost as puerile to argue against tests as it was in the noble earl to extol their praises. But when I perceive that all who speak hold them as precious, with

more or less of reserve, according to the skill of the several speakers, the unpractised and clumsy ones actually praising them, like the noble earl, while even in the arguments of the superior artists there runs a sort of under current through the whole in favour of tests; nay, that all their reasonings and declaimings from beginning to end, resolve themselves into the necessity of tests and nothing else—I cannot help, not only expressing my extreme wonder at their inconsistency in having ever permitted the repeal of the penal laws, and the test and corporation acts, both as regards catholic and protestant dissenters, but also I cannot help pausing to express my delight and thankfulness, still greater than my wonder, that this view of the subject did not strike them a few years earlier: for assuredly had the noble duke been in 1829 of the mind he now is in, the emancipation of the catholics never would have been permitted. Only see the gross inconsistency you have committed; now you declare that there is all the danger in the world to be apprehended from allowing a few of our rich dissenters to educate themselves at the universities, and giving one in fifty of those few a doctor's degree—the church, you say, is not safe if that door be open, and the education of a few dissenters be carried on there;—and yet, at another time, you, with perfect security, allow dissenters and Roman catholics to enter the two Houses of Parliament, where they are to make the laws by which those very universities and the church herself, in all her departments, are to be governed, and you also permit them to mount every height of office which the state affords. I cannot see the consistency of the two doctrines. I cannot see the danger of allowing dissenters to enter the seats of learning, while there is no risk in trusting the same hands with the power of making the laws, and of executing them. Nay, the great seal itself may be held by a dissenter; there is no test, no subscription required of him who holds it: one noble and learned predecessor of mine was perfectly well known to be a presbyterian, and no objection was taken to him, in days when men were by a good deal less liberal than they are now; so that no one dreamt of the church being endangered by a dissenter having the patronage of nine hundred livings and twenty stalls. But suffer him to send his son to college, and be made a doctor of physic, and the safety of the church is no more.

My lords, I think I stated, that I should have been much better pleased, if by a mutual understanding between the parties, the universities on the one hand, and the dissenters on the other—some regulations could have been devised by the former, under which the latter might have access to those seats of learning. But as that is, for the present, hopeless, I can only trust to a favourable reception of this measure. Should, however, the apprehensions entertained of the issue prove right, I can then only most earnestly and most respectfully address myself to the heads of those learned bodies, entreating them to use all their influence between this time and the next session of Parliament, to effect what would even for the dissenters themselves be a

better, because more efficacious mode of settling this question, by means of an amicable arrangement.

Something was dropped by the noble duke, respecting the dissenters obtaining degrees at institutions of their own, to which, he said, no one can object. Yes, my lords, this is very easily said in argument to assist a purpose; but as soon as the dissenters do endeavour to obtain the power of granting degrees in those other institutions which have been alluded to, then the same learned bodies are found to meet them in front, and to object to any charter being granted that shall give them the power to confer degrees. What is meant by this? Will they neither give degrees themselves to the dissenters, nor let them have the power of obtaining them elsewhere? If so, then those learned bodies mean to say, that because a man is a dissenter, he shall not have a degree anywhere. But I cannot, nor will I, believe that such is their doctrine; and I hope and trust I shall live to see, before long, either some equitable adjustment of the question, or at least an end of all opposition to a charter being granted to the London University. The noble earl on the bench behind me, threw out some insinuations against that body, and hinted that it was accessible not only to Jews, protestant dissenters, and Roman catholics, but he also used the word atheist.

The EARL of CAERNARVON.—I did not use the word atheist.

The LORD CHANCELLOR.—The word was used by some noble lord, and I should, but for the denial, have most confidently said the noble earl, and it was used in reference to the London University. But I may venture to say, that in the London University, there is great abundance of piety, and of a very warm and genuine kind, not only in the council, but among the professors. The very names of some of them are, indeed, sufficient proof of their religious principles being unquestionably orthodox. There are some belonging to the church, and among its staunchest supporters,—there are some most serious and religious dissenters in the council; but there prevail also among the students very strong principles of religious belief. The noble earl, therefore, can have no ground, notwithstanding the kind of sneer with which he spoke of the University of London, for the insinuation thrown out. It is quite clear that he is inconsistent in his objection to that body, though not more so than in most of his declamations; for he founded his argument with regard to Trinity College, Dublin, admitting catholics, upon the ground that there was no residence required as in our universities. "Where no residence is exacted," observed the noble earl, "the pupils are left under the paternal roof, and are educated in the religion of their parents." But he will be pleased to recollect, when next he sets to making sentences on the London University, that this is precisely the case with the pupils of that great and flourishing establishment.

Upon the whole, I confess that I am not sorry, whatever may be the fate of this bill, that the worthy individuals who promoted it in the other House of Parliament have prevailed upon that House to pass

it, in order that we might, at least, discuss it here. A subject resting upon grounds so absolutely irrefragable,—grounds so plain as regards the nature and the amount of the grievance complained of, though perhaps not so plain as regards the best kind of remedy to be applied,—a subject like this has nothing to fear from discussion: the longer it is considered, and the more thoroughly it is canvassed, the greater progress will be made towards its final and satisfactory settlement. I hope and trust, whether the bill passes this session or a year or two hence, that, at least, something will be gained by this debate; and that the time will soon come, when the merits of the case having been set forth in their true light, a measure so just in principle, and so sound in policy, will receive the sanction of the whole legislature.

SCOTCH PARLIAMENTARY

AND

BURGH REFORM.

INTRODUCTION.

ARCHIBALD FLETCHER—LORD ARCHIBALD HAMILTON—LORD ROSSLYN
—JAMES BROUGHAM.

THE state of the Scottish Representation at all times was allowed to form an extreme case of corruption and abuse. Accordingly, the enemies of Reform never ventured to defend it, except upon the extreme ground of opposing all change, on the rigorous principle that the existing constitution of Parliament must not on any account or in any particular be touched. When Mr. Canning was defending the system at Liverpool, by resorting to the well known argument of virtual representation, and illustrated this by saying that misrepresented Manchester was secure in the possession of her rights by represented Liverpool, Mr. Brougham, in conversation, asked him how his argument would apply to Scotland, where no one feature of representation existed, the counties themselves being for the most part on the footing of rotten boroughs in England. His answer was, that he must admit all this; and could only maintain the Scottish electoral system upon the ground of its being a part of the existing Parliamentary constitution, to all reforms of which he was hostile; because he assumed for the basis of his reasoning, that every reform being a change in fundamentals, was objectionable simply as such. But the reply was obvious, that this begged the question, and begged it at the very moment when, by urging in England the doctrine of virtual representation, he was admitting the necessity of defending the merits of the existing system, with other reasons than the mere objection to all change, inasmuch as that argument of virtual representation was adduced for the purpose of showing the sufficiency of the system to perform its intended functions, and give the whole country the benefits of real representation, however inadequately and unequally the franchise might be distributed in different places. It thus happened, naturally enough, that many persons who would not take to the doctrines of reform when applied to England, were friendly to Scotch Reform; and it also happened as naturally, that the cause of Reform in general received a great accession of strength from the glaring abuses in the Scottish system, which seemed to show, as it were in a magnifying reflecting glass, the wholly deformed features of corrupt representation, and from the undeniable consideration, that as the whole fabric must either be left untouched or repaired generally, the price to be paid for maintaining the lesser evils of the English system must needs be the perpetuating of the still more crying abuses in the Scotch.

If the Scotch system of parliamentary polity was a mockery of everything like representation at elections, the constitution of the boroughs presented as complete a burlesque upon everything deserving the name of municipal government. It is true that in this respect there was far less difference between the systems under

which the two parts of the plan were framed; for by successive encroachments upon popular rights, which the courts of law greatly favoured in all their decisions, adopting indeed the principle that whatever tended to restrict the number of borough electors should be encouraged, as tending to prevent popular tumults, the constitution of the English boroughs had come at last to bear only a faint resemblance of popular election; and a self-elective principle had become the pervading rule of their political structure, and the radical vice in the administration of their affairs. But in Scotland this evil was considerably more universal, and its influence more searching. For four centuries every vestige of election in the choice of office-bearers had been unknown, having been swept away by an act of Parliament. The consequences of this complete establishment of self-election was not only the exclusion of the community from all share in the management of their own affairs, but the mismanagement of all municipal concerns, the gross perversion of patronage, the dilapidation of property, the confusion of accounts, the increasing of debts, the obstruction of all local improvement, and generally, the universal prevalence of maladministration and abuse.

To both the state of its parliamentary and its municipal constitution, the attention of Scotland had at different times, during a long course of years, been directed by some very able, virtuous, and patriotic persons, whose labours were unremitting for the removal of the abuses thus pointed out and traced to their source, and who in the time of alarm that followed the earlier scenes of the French Revolution, were fated to see the fruit of their labours blighted long before it was ripe. Among these eminent patriots, the first place is due to Archibald Fletcher, a learned, experienced, and industrious lawyer, one of the most upright men that ever adorned the profession, and a man of such stern and resolute firmness in public principle, as is very rarely found united with the amiable character which endeared him to private society. Devoted from his earliest youth to the cause of civil liberty, his mind had become deeply imbued with a sense of the corruption which had crept into our constitution, and disfigured its original excellence. His zeal for the maintenance of these principles, and his anxiety for the renovation of British liberty, were, if possible, still further excited by the matrimonial union which he entered into with a lady of Whig family in Yorkshire, one of the most accomplished of her sex, who, with the utmost purity of life that can dignify and enhance female charms, combined the inflexible principles and deep political feeling of a Hutcheson or a Roland; and he devoted to the great work of reforming the Scottish elective system, both as regarded its parliamentary and its municipal branches, every hour which could be spared from the claims of his clients. The proceedings in the convention of royal burghs, the bills introduced by the Crown lawyers for reforming the scheme of their accounting, the motions for Scotch reform made by Mr. Sheridan, were all intimately connected with his unremitting and most useful labours. Nor could anything but the alarm raised by the deplorable turn of French affairs, have prevented some important measures, at least of Burgh Reform, from being adopted nearly fifty years ago. Although his life was protracted to the extreme period of the years of man, he was not permitted to see the triumph of the cause to which his best days had been devoted, and for which his latest prayers were offered. Nor, on the other hand, was he, while deprived of this solace to his declining age, doomed to witness the painful sight of his early coadjutors corrupted by the love of place and patronage, forgetting the principles which had alone recommended them to popular favour, and had enabled them to obtain that power, the mere retaining of which on any terms, has become the only object of their exertion, and the sole guide of their conduct; as if the fate of empire was bound up in their official existence.

The same fate happened to the other great patron of Scotch reform, and by far its most powerful advocate in Parliament, Lord Archibald Hamilton. A more honest and independent minded man never lived to take part in public affairs. With all the right feelings of his high station, kept in moderation by his popular principles, and subdued by the good sense of modern society, he possessed the most determined spirit of resistance to all oppression and all abuse, the most genuine hatred of everything base and corrupt, the most enlarged and liberal views of national policy in all the departments of public affairs. Much of his time he gave to study, and he was, in fact, well informed upon political subjects beyond most men who

mixed in Parliamentary discussions, and whose learning is, generally speaking, confined within a somewhat narrow range. He loved to cultivate the society of those whose lives had been yet more devoted to studious pursuits; and while he profited largely by this intercourse, he never failed to inspire them with an unfeigned respect for his good sense, his honest and sincere nature, and his sound opinions, truth being ever the object of his search. A warm friend of the country with which he was connected by ample family possessions, and the highest dignities, when he early in life quitted the bar, he began and continued his Parliamentary course in a steady pursuit of whatever measures seemed best calculated to promote a reformation of the existing system, whose general defects he well perceived, but whose peculiar pressure upon the liberties and the prosperity of Scotland, he saw outweighed all its other evils. Accordingly, never was a more persevering or powerful advocacy lent to any question than his support of Scotch Parliamentary and Burgh Reform. Little seconded at first, by degrees his honest and able exertions obtained, even from the more unreflecting and selfish portion of the liberal party, that favour which usually attends the efforts of unwearied perseverance long continued. He gathered round him a numerous and powerful band of supporters; he made the subject, naturally somewhat distasteful among English partisans, popular, and even interesting to the whole party; he never refused his support to any other question which incidentally occurred, and touched the interests or awakened the feelings of the Scotch people; and before his lamented decease, he had placed the whole subject of Scotch reform, and generally of Scotch affairs, upon a footing both solid and striking, having succeeded in ranking it among the most prominent questions of liberal policy.

His successful exertions made the task of those easy, who, upon the accession of the Whigs to power, had to carry through the great measures of Scotch reform. But it was a mournful reflection that the eminent leader of the cause did not live to rejoice in its final triumph. It is also greatly to be lamented that the occasion was not taken, upon the triumph being achieved, of recording, with due gratitude and respect, the lasting obligation which it owed to the services of its early and steady leader. No good measure of legislation, Lord Coke has well said, was ever proposed, however little effect the suggestion might make at the time, "that in the end some good did not come therefrom." But he might have added, had he lived to the times of the Romillys, the Horners, the Hamiltons, the Fletchers, that when the harvest of improvement is reaped by puny hands, and its profits treasured up in their own individual garner, there is far too general a disposition among men, even among those who benefit the most by it, to sink in oblivion the names of those whose nervous arms and generous toils prepared the reluctant soil, subdued its ungrateful nature, and scattered over its rugged surface the precious seed which their genius had elaborated, and which, with little further pains from their feeble successors, has since made the desert smile with flowers, and the field wave with fruit. A yet less satisfactory event than even this forgetfulness, has been witnessed in our time. Converts of the eleventh hour—enemies of all reform whatever, until their places depended on professing themselves its friends—advocates of all old abuses, until the moment when they could no longer hold by them and live—have alone become the professing supporters of improvement, alone reap its personal advantages, alone enjoy the fruits of their predecessors' and adversaries' disinterested and unrequited labours. And as might well be expected, the cause of reform being thus placed in the alien hands of those who stand in a perfectly false position, it has for some time ceased to make any progress under such patronage;—its advancement has been found no longer necessary for retaining its pretended friends in place; and men have been seen, who, with the words of freedom on their lips, show by each act of their lives that the securing to themselves and their adherents, of patronage, and especially of provincial patronage, is the thing next their hearts. Whoever has the distribution of that patronage is sure of their adhesion; and not even a retrograde movement of reform would now either detach those sordid supporters, or shake the power of their patrons.

The following speech was made upon the introduction into the House of Lords of the Scottish Reform Bill in 1833. It was deemed expedient that the whole extent of the measure should be left in the hands of Lord Brougham, then Chancellor

lor; and no one else ever said a word on the subject either in the House or in the committee. The opposition to it was left in like manner in the hands of two noble lords connected with Scotland—Lord Haddington and Lord Rosslyn—and than this selection nothing could be more judicious. Lord Rosslyn, now unhappily no more, was one of the most able and upright men who ever added strength or respectability to any political party. Although a soldier from his earliest years, and a distinguished ornament of his profession in which he had always served with increasing honour, he had yet profoundly studied the laws of his country, and was thoroughly acquainted with every branch of political knowledge. His experience of affairs was large, and he had amply profited by it; being possessed of a store of practical wisdom, which a long life of various business, improved by uncommon natural quickness and sagacity, with a singularly calm judgment, can alone enable any one to amass, and which made him one of the safest advisers that any party or any person could resort to in a difficult emergency of their concerns. His manner of speaking, when he took part in debate, was that of a clear-headed man of business, who never touched a subject with which he was not intimately acquainted; and who, never having any obscurity or vagueness in his own conceptions, left his audience in no doubt whatever of his meaning. His taste was correct to fastidiousness, and having passed his youth in familiar acquaintance with the great masters of the day, the Norths, the Burkes, the Foxes, the Windhams, he had learnt so well the danger of venturing beyond his sphere, that he rarely indulged in any but the expositive and argumentative parts of discourse. Some, however, of his speeches had a great and well-deserved success. Mr. Grattan and Sir John Newport, the highest authorities on such a subject, both declared that his luminous and masterly speech upon Irish affairs in 1816 had never been matched for a profound and convincing exposition of Irish affairs; and the friends of the charity abuse and education bills in 1818, give an equally strong testimony to the merits of the speech by which he carried that measure through the House of Lords, against the strenuous opposition of Lord Chancellor Eldon and the government of the day.

Lord Rosslyn had originally belonged, with his uncle, Lord Loughborough, to the party of Lord North, and though he had only, like him, left the Whigs when the French Revolution thinned their ranks, yet he long retained the aversion to Parliamentary Reform which distinguished the politicians of the North school. The progress of liberal opinions mitigated this hostility, and he became a Reformer, though on a moderate scale. When, with the full assent of Lord Grey and the other Whig leaders, he joined the Duke of Wellington upon the Catholic question being carried by him in so masterly and characteristic a manner, it unfortunately happened that he did not quit his new connection at William IV's accession; and an adverse movement having thrown out the government before any approximation with the Whigs could be effected, he was compelled, by a high sense of honour, to continue in alliance with the moderate Tories. His old, intimate, and attached friends, Lords Grey and Brougham, urged him to accept the Ordinance, without a seat in the Cabinet, on the government of November 1830 being formed; but a point of honour kept him to his recent connections, although, like the duke himself, he continued friendly to the new government until the great extent of the reform bill staggered one who, though prepared for reform, could not consent to so large and experimental a measure as that which even the sworn enemies of all reform had found it expedient and deemed it their duty all at once to patronize. From that time, he became entirely severed from the Whigs, to his own great concern, and heavy discomfort, and to their still greater vexation and more serious loss. It may be added, that his unfortunate and insuperable objection to join Lord Grey's government in 1830, had been confirmed rather than removed, on his consulting with a friend in whose integrity, rare disinterestedness, and admirable judgment, he always reposed entire confidence,—the late Mr. James Brougham,*—through whom the proposition was made to him by the heads of the government. Anxious as that most excellent

* His intimacy with and confidence in this true and valued friend had been greatly increased by the accidental circumstance of his accompanying him when he returned from Scotland, after the fatal result of a duel, in which his lordship had been unhappily, but most honourably for himself, concerned in the year 1822.

and deeply lamented person was for the renewal of his friendly connection with the liberal party, and much inclined to press the request of Lord Grey upon him, when he heard his reasons and feelings expressed by himself, he declared, on being asked what he really advised, that Lord Rosslyn had taken the right, because the high and strictly honourable course,—an opinion in which Lord Grey also and Lord Brougham reluctantly acquiesced.

In private life Lord Rosslyn was a model of every endearing quality. The most kind and affectionate member of a family,—the most generous benefactor on every occasion,—the most warm and zealous friend,—the person who of all others, perhaps, that ever lived, except the friend last mentioned, whom in this he most resembled, was the most remarkable for habitually, instinctively, and, by a sort of necessity of his nature, putting himself out of the question, and carrying his disinterestedness so far on every occasion, that he was himself the only person whose concerns never occupied his own thoughts. No wonder that the loss of such a man should have spread a gloom over the circle which he sustained and adorned. No wonder that his loss to the liberal party should have been the subject of deep and lasting regret.

When he conducted, with his wonted ability and knowledge of the subject, the opposition to the Scotch Reform Bill, he also opposed, or rather watched its progress with the most admirable candour and moderation. All his enlightened and liberal principles were seen to guide his conduct; the measure suffered nothing by his resistance of it; in every important particular it was greatly improved by his suggestions; and it is but fair to add, that on some material points in which he was overruled, experience has proved him to have been right, and the advocates of the bill to have been mistaken.

S P E E C H
OF THE
LORD CHANCELLOR
UPON THE
SCOTCH BURGH REFORM BILL.

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

TUESDAY, AUGUST 13, 1833.

I RISE, my lords, to move the second reading of this bill, which has been passed by the commons for the purpose of effecting a great, and, in my humble opinion, and in the opinion of the people of Scotland, a most salutary and necessary improvement in the constitution of the Burghs of Scotland. This subject has at various times occupied the attention of Parliament; but, except upon one occasion, namely, the discussion of the Scotch Reform Bill, last session, no attempt has recently been made to bring under the notice of the legislature the peculiar situation in which those Burghs stand. At the period to which I have alluded, I felt it to be my duty to enter somewhat largely into their constitution; but I did so only incidentally, and with a view to the measure then under consideration; and I, therefore, still think it necessary to go rather fully into the question, now that it has become the main subject of inquiry. I shall, therefore, crave the attention of your lordships for some time, not on the ground of any very general interest or entertainment which the topic affords, but in proportion to its intrinsic importance, while I explain the constitution and effects of the Scotch Burgh system. It is the more necessary to enter into such an explanation, because the constitution of the Scotch Burghs is so extremely different from that of the English boroughs, that a person possessing the greatest knowledge of the one might be perfectly at a loss with respect to the other. I have no doubt, however, that in this, as well as in other particulars, the institutions of the two countries

were once pretty nearly alike; and that the law and constitution of Scotch Burghs in remote times bore a near resemblance to those of the boroughs in this country at the same period. This, however, is a question, the investigation of which must be more interesting to legal antiquaries, than productive of any practical advantage. The same observation may be applied to another question, involved in like obscurity, and which I shall, therefore, dismiss from my present consideration, namely, what was the precise right of burgh election previous to the great change which took place in the fifteenth century, and whence originated the principle which, from that time up to the present period, has continued to regulate the rights of the burghs. I have myself very little doubt that in those times the effective corporators were the burgage tenants holding *in capite* of the crown, and that the right of electing magistrates was vested in the great body of the more respectable inhabitants. However, in the year 1469, it appears that the legislature of Scotland thought it expedient to effect a material change in the constitution of the burghs, and to vest in a particular and select class that right which before had extended to the whole.

There were two modes by which the legislature might have accomplished this object; one was, to point out a certain description of persons to whom alone it should be lawful to exercise the right. This was, however, a difficult way of proceeding, as it was almost impossible to say to what class those persons should belong, and where the line should be drawn. There was another plan, which, if the community only submitted to its adoption, was much more easy of execution. Hitherto the burgesses at large, or other respectable inhabitants, elected from year to year a council, which council elected their magistrates, including the provost and bailies. The council, the provost, and the bailies in Scotland, may be taken as respectively equivalent to the common council, the mayor, and aldermen in English boroughs. The legislature of Scotland therefore thought, that as the existing councils had been chosen by the citizens at large, *they* could not complain, if that body, which they had freely elected, should now be taken and vested with the right of electing everybody else, *including themselves*, in future—the popular constituency being for ever after excluded: and, accordingly, an act was passed for that purpose, the preamble of which stated, that “in consequence of the great contentions which had arisen out of the election of officers in burghs, through multitude and clamour of the commons, simple persons, they ought henceforth to be excluded from the election.” The enacting part of the statute is as short, clear, and simple as the preamble—(clearness, conciseness, and simplicity being qualities for which the old Scotch acts are remarkable);—it is to the following effect: “For the reason aforesaid, it is thought expedient that *the old council should choose the new*, and the new and old council together should choose all the officers, and ilk craft (that means every different trade in each corporate burgh) should choose a person who should have a vote in the election of the officers.” Thus the enactment was twofold: it abo-

lished the right of the citizens at large to choose councils and officers, and it vested that right in the existing and succeeding councils. It appears from this act, that the different incorporated trades, such as butchers, weavers, and goldsmiths, had the right reserved to them of choosing one representative, who went by the title of deacon; and these deacons, though not entitled to sit as councillors, were yet to concur with the council in choosing the magistrates. At first these deacons were no doubt chosen freely by their respective trades; but when certain of them were admitted into the council, the council claimed to choose the council-deacons: and in the course of time a kind of compromise took place between the trades and the council, the consequence of which was a sort of mixed election, the council and the trades uniting in the choice of the deacons.

This is the general condition of the burghs of Scotland; several stand in a situation somewhat different; but there are about twenty-four burghs which have exactly such a constitution;—and to illustrate it, I will mention the case of Edinburgh, one of the number. In that city the council consists of thirty-three members, including the provost, four bailies, dean of guild, merchants-councillors, and trades-councillors, and some other offices. There is also another branch, which consists of six council-deacons, who are the representatives of the different crafts, or subordinate corporations within the corporation of the town. Setting aside these six deacons for the present, there remain twenty-seven members of council, who, ever since the year 1469, have been absolutely and exclusively chosen by themselves. But how stands the case with respect to those six deacons? It is true that their election has something more of the appearance of freedom; but is it, in reality, more free than that of the other members of the council? The whole of the different trades in Edinburgh elect fourteen deacons; and if in this election the council, as before 1469, did not interfere, each would be chosen by a free election. But as six of these deacons are now of the council, if the act of 1469 were applied to the matter, the trades would not have the power of electing one of them; because the first part of that act gives the council the power of self-election. It appears to be a matter of doubt whether, at first, the council did not possess as absolute a right to elect the deacons, as the other members of council; but, in process of time, it happened that the council and trades shared in the election. The present custom is this; when the time of election for the deacon arrives, each trade sends up to the council a list (or, as it is termed, a leet) of six persons, which the council reduces (or shortens) to three; and that list of three is sent back to the trade, who then exercise their elective franchise, and choose one of the three; and after the whole fourteen are thus elected, the council, at its own pleasure, selects and nominates the six who are to be in the council; so that the present practice does not materially interfere with self-election—the spirit of the act of 1469. This is the case with Edinburgh; but in some burghs the practice is reversed, and the list of six is sent by the council to the trades, and returned, reduced to three, to the council, which then chooses one of the three. Thus in Edinburgh the sem-

blance of election by the trades, applies only to six out of the thirty-three members of council; but it is the semblance only even as to those; and there, and in most other places, in name or in substance, the principle of self-election is paramount, and the councils choose themselves without any control or interference on the part of the body of the burghesses or inhabitants at large.

Now, a word with respect to the burghesses at large, as contradistinguished from the members of the different trades. By the practice of the Scotch burghs, a person habitually becomes a burghess, not in respect of birth, trade, apprenticeship, or marriage, as in England, but in a wholly different manner. The trades are of two descriptions,—first, the trades or crafts, which comprise ordinary operatives or artisans—and next, the guild of merchants. In Edinburgh there are fourteen trades and one guild of merchants. Every person, being at the head of any particular trade or craft, is called the Deacon of that trade or craft; and he who is at the head of the merchants' house, is called the Dean of Guild. But into all the trades, any person may be practically admitted, whether he has served his apprenticeship to the trade in the burgh or not, and whether he make his claim on the ground of birth or marriage, or not. Your lordships will, therefore, see that the law and practice in Scotch burghs are entirely different from the corporation law and practice in England. A person, when he comes to reside in a Scotch burgh, has only to make proper application to be admitted into the trade or craft to which he belongs, and it is extremely doubtful whether there exists any right absolutely to refuse one so claiming admittance, provided he is obnoxious to no legal objection, and possesses sufficient skill to exercise the mystery of the trade or craft into whose corporation he claims admittance. In practice I understand the admission is never resisted; the question generally arises on persons exercising the trade without being admitted, and if objected to, they are always allowed to enter on payment of their fees. There is no difference made between those who were born of burghesses, or who had served in the burgh, and those who are mere strangers, excepting only this—that they admit the one class of persons into the craft on the payment of lower fees than are demanded from the other; but they are both admitted into the enjoyment of the same rights and privileges. Beside these persons, others, not attached to any of the crafts, are admitted burghesses of the burgh at large, by way of honour, and for other reasons. The great bulk, however, of the burghesses in Scotch burghs is composed of persons belonging to some particular trade or craft; but there are in Edinburgh, out of the whole number of burghesses, amounting to 2500, as many as 500 or 600 unattached.

The mode of election which I have just described to your lordships, has been practised from the fifteenth century down to the present day; but it is necessary to state that the constitution which I mentioned as belonging to Edinburgh, and some other large towns, is in one material point,—that which relates to the election of deacons,—by no means common to all these burghs. The case of the capital which I have

taken may be considered as one of the more perfect specimens of the class of rotten corporations which exist in Scotland. I do not mean perfect, in the absence of all rottenness or self-elective principle, but perfect as compared to others to which I am about to call your lordships' attention. These other burghs amount in number to eleven, and they are far worse than the twenty-four burghs, including Edinburgh and Glasgow, to which I before alluded; for whereas the latter class have a dean of guild and deacons, chosen jointly by the council and a portion of the burghesses, the former have no guild of merchants; and, therefore, as there exists no body of merchants to choose the dean, that officer is chosen absolutely, and without any mixed election, by the council. But there is another gradation yet lower in the scale of corruption; for there are not less than twenty-five burghs having no guild of merchants, and no incorporated trades either. In these burghs, the council rules unchecked by anything bearing the most distant resemblance to popular control: For as there are no means of choosing either a dean or deacons, none, consequently, are chosen, and the council re-elects itself from year to year, without any even nominal interference on the part of other bodies. But, as it happens that in the arrangements of nature there is an infinite gradation in the scale of being, from man down to the polypus which grows upon the rock, scarcely less inanimate than the rock itself,—so in the inventions of art, nature has to a certain extent been imitated; an almost endless gradation is observable in the scale of political existence; and nothing can be discovered so imperfect that something still less perfect may not be pointed out. Accordingly, your lordships will find that there are four burghs exhibiting even fewer symptoms of political animation than those I have just described; for they possess not only no dean of guild and no deacons, but not even any burghesses! yet they have a council and magistrates, who elect themselves, and exercise all the privileges and perform all the functions belonging to the most perfect council—if I may talk of perfection, where all is so imperfect; and where even the best, I mean the constitution of Edinburgh and Glasgow, has no match for badness among the worst in England. So that if your lordships had started, as you reasonably might, with the idea that the corporations of Edinburgh and Glasgow were as low in the scale of political existence as it is possible for corporate bodies to be, you would have found, on investigation, that there are no less than three gradations lower still, and each one worse than the other, until at last we come to the worst of all—the four unhappy burghs which have no appearance of election about them, there being none within them who can elect.

Looking to the constitution of these burghs, perhaps your lordships might be disposed to think that their privileges would, on inquiry, be found to bear some proportion to the mode of election practised in them; and that those which are imperfectly created and formed, are also imperfectly endowed. Exactly the contrary, however, is the case; for it turns out that the extent of their endowments is in an inverse ratio to the purity of their origin and the excellence of their

conformation; and in proportion as their descent is base, and their form corrupt, the functions with which they are invested are of a higher and more exuberant character, placing them on much more than a level with the comparatively free corporations of England:—I say comparatively, for everything is estimated by comparison; and though I hesitate not to say that the English borough constitutions require to be unsparingly visited by reform, yet, compared with the best of the Scotch, the worst of the English may be held up to the country as a paragon of freedom and purity. The Scotch burgh magistracies are possessed of the most important powers. First, they have a large common law jurisdiction in matters of police; and, in the next place, they have had conferred on them, by various local as well as general acts of the legislature, ample additional police functions. Then they have, by the common law, most extensive civil jurisdiction. The magistrates in these burghs may be said to be judges in ordinary within their own bounds, as the sheriff is within the county. They try questions of the greatest importance, and which may excite the most lively interest; their jurisdiction does not, indeed, exclude that of the sheriff, the judge ordinary of the county, but they have in the burgh a concurrent jurisdiction with him; and accordingly they oftentimes do try causes of the greatest pecuniary moment. I have seen cases come before your lordships, by way of appeal, which had been originally determined by these magistrates—cases involving interests of large amount, and nice questions of law—questions of importance not only to the parties immediately concerned, but to the law in general. In all but the larger cities, they have little professional assistance, the only person possessing legal knowledge whom they have to direct them in their judgments being the town clerk. In Edinburgh and Glasgow, individuals of experience in the law are appointed to the situation of assessors; a clumsy and absurd contrivance, whether resorted to in England or in Scotland. Thus I know, that in Glasgow, a most learned and able lawyer, of long standing at the bar, and fitted to adorn the highest judicial station, happily for that place, fills the situation of town clerk, and virtually decides the causes of which the magistrates, who of course take precedence of him, are nominally the judges. But elsewhere, the persons chosen have generally little other title to the distinction than that of being the favourites of the corporation. Thus scantily provided, those magistrates exercise the important jurisdiction I have described, embracing, in all but a few cases, questions of any amount. They have, in like manner, all criminal jurisdiction, short of life and limb—and lastly, they have the management of the funds of the corporation—a power which I do not know if they value the most, but which I think in some respects of the highest importance, and in their exercise of which it is notorious—I know it will not be denied—that they have, generally speaking, done nothing which deserves commendation.

These funds arise in some burghs from extensive landed possessions; in others, from large personal property; and in most from imposts levied on the inhabitants. The revenue of Edinburgh, derived chiefly

from this last source, amounts, I believe, to between £52,000 and £53,000. That of Glasgow is even higher, being, I suppose, not less than £60,000. The incomes of the smaller burghs are also far from inconsiderable; one possessing a revenue of £8000; another £7000; another £6000; and so on. Many of them have lands, or, at least, have at different times been possessed of lands, of large extent. Very ample landed property formerly belonged to Edinburgh. I am not informed as to the extent of the possessions attached to Glasgow. But I could mention one burgh, coming within the more imperfect class which I have before described, and truncated of guild and dean and deacon, which was in the possession of 3000 acres of land, and two valuable fisheries; and I could also name another which owned between 2000 and 3000 acres of land. I have spoken in the past tense with respect to these burghs and their domains; for, alas! they have no longer possession of this property. One burgh, which had 3000 acres, probably worth £9000 or £10,000 a-year, now derives from those estates—I will not say no revenue, because I believe that it does get an income from thence amounting to somewhere about £150 a-year, being the feu-duty of the same. If your lordships look to the names of the tenants or proprietors of this property, (for they are in reality the proprietors, the land being theirs to hold at a perpetual fixed rent; and, since the reform bill, to all intents and purposes, political as well as patrimonial, their tenure is the same as fee-simple,) you will find that these feuars, eleven in number, have, for the most part, either themselves been provosts in the burgh, or are the immediate descendants of the worthy individuals who once filled that municipal situation! I do not mean to say that there is anything decisive in this fact; it may, no doubt, be purely accidental; but it is a curious coincidence, that land worth £10,000 a-year should be feued out to eleven persons at £150; and that almost all of them should be either ex-provosts of the burgh, or their immediate descendants. I have no doubt that this matter could be easily explained; but up to this time all explanation is wanting. So in other burghs, when your lordships examine the state of the public property, you will not fail to be struck with the coincidence between those who now hold the land once vested in the community, and those who formerly were officers of the corporation.

It is not only in respect of those lands, however, that this peculiarity is observable. In another shape, it meets you, in respect of the revenues derived from imposts. In the management of these and all their other funds, the same system of improvidence is to be remarked—improvidence merely it cannot be called—but the same spirit of favouritism, which, in some places is designated jobbing, and in others corruption. What I am now saying is so far from being considered slander against those corporators, (I do not mean the corporators of the present day, but those who, by a few years, preceded them,) that were any one to use any other expressions with respect to them, he would be regarded with a feeling approaching to pity, if not ridicule. It is only what they have been accustomed to hear for the last forty-

five years—ever since the consequences of this abominable system were first dragged into the light. In one place a gaol was to be built, and an estimate was given in by the deacon of the incorporated trades of builders and wrights, amounting to £600 or £700. He was a member of the corporation, and his proposal was, as a matter of course, accepted; and it was very well for the corporate funds that he did not ask twice as much. The gaol, according to the first plan, was to be built three stories high; but subsequently, the terms were altered; the three stories were not required, and the gaol was reduced to one. Now, your lordships will naturally suppose that, as the building was lowered two-thirds, the cost would be lowered in something like the same proportion. This, however, would be a grievous mistake. There was no reduction made of the £700; though the amount of the money was certainly altered; but instead of being diminished two-thirds, it was raised nearly one-half! The gaol with three stories, was to have been completed for £700, but in consequence of the alteration of the plan, cutting down the three stories to one, the builder received £1000 for his work and materials! In another burgh, a respectable and honest tradesman proposed, for £850, to erect a building which was wanted; but as he was not a corporator, the doors of the council-chamber were shut against him, and his estimate was refused. Nevertheless, the place did not go without a building, or the corporation without a contractor. On the contrary, there was found in a deacon of their own body, an architect so much more efficient than the original proposer, that the corporation gave him £1600 for the work!

These are only one or two instances selected from a large mass which at different times have come before the public. They are only symptoms of what takes place: yet they are much to be regarded, because they are not accidental, but are the natural, and indeed necessary results of the system of self-election, and the want of all control by the people, over the management of the funds of the burghs. But the improvidence of the managers of these public funds has not been confined to such trivial matters as I have just alluded to. The most wild and extravagant speculations have been devised and embarked in with the utmost recklessness. No examination ever took place beforehand, to ascertain whether any extended traffic required, or any extraordinary growth of resources justified, an increase to the buildings or public works of the town; but at once, if there was money in hand, it must be spent: contracts must be entered into, and some of the corporation have the preference; all the tangible funds must be expended, and when none remained, credit must be obtained. I will venture to say, that, in many instances, the parties did not know, when they entered upon such projects, how far they were to carry them. This is no doubt the case with individuals, as well as corporations: but the difference is, that individuals are not likely to be so inconsiderate, because they risk their individual existence. Such a course, of proceeding has naturally led many of the burghs to the door of ruin; and I might, indeed, say within the threshold; for one of the greatest of them has

had to apply to Parliament to put its affairs in a course of management; and another is reduced to such insolvency, that a trust-deed is in the act of being prepared; while a third is in a state of notorious bankruptcy. At various times these things have attracted the attention of Parliament; and it is not to be supposed that they have escaped the eye of the public. But without advertng to the feeling of the community at large, and without directing your attention to the interest which the subject excited in the other House, I will merely mention what has been done by the burghs themselves,—that is, by the magistracies, the very parties complained of.

There is a body called the Convention of Royal Burghs, or the Convention of Delegates, whose powers are not exactly defined, but who possess great authority, being, indeed, the representatives of all those corporations; insomuch that everything which they propose by way of recommendation, naturally meets with attention from the whole of those bodies. They assemble once a-year; their numbers are sixty-six, being one delegate from each; and generally from fifty to sixty attend. I hold in my hand a resolution, passed in 1792, at one of those meetings, when fifty-two delegates were present. It declares, “that it would be wholly impossible to succeed in establishing anything like an effective control over the accounts and expenditure of the burghs, without utterly destroying the system of self-election.” This is a resolution adopted I believe unanimously; and come to on account of the existence of the gross and intolerable abuses which had arisen from the close system. Mr. Dundas, then Lord Advocate, and afterwards Chief Baron of Scotland, had previously introduced a bill for the purpose of making the corporations accountable for the expenditure of the public money; but it was found ineffectual for its purpose; and the result was the adoption of the resolution by the convention of delegates, which I have just read to your lordships, declaring that no bill could apply a remedy to the abuses complained of, while the system of self-election continued.

But now came the alarms excited in Scotland, as well as in this country, by the bad times of the French Revolution; when, in the pursuit of liberty, men gave way to violence, and by their excesses, made everything like change, for a season terrible and hateful. The question of Parliamentary Reform was fated to share in this general odium; with it that of Burgh Reform was confounded; and both were together laid aside. It was feared that, if Burgh Reform were carried, Parliamentary Reform would follow. But at no time was it contended, in Scotland, that if the excitement occasioned by the latter measure should subside, and the former rested on its own merits,—if the connection of the two questions were severed,—at no time, from 1792 downwards, was it ever contended, that the resolution of the delegates in that year for abolishing self-election, ought not to be followed up, and carried into effect. Now, therefore, when the questions are for ever severed, by carrying of Parliamentary Reform, it is quite a matter of course that Parliament should attempt to redeem the various implied pledges which, at different times, it has given; and remedy the numerous evils so long complained of in the constitution of the burghs, and so plainly

avowed by the magistracies themselves. I shall, therefore, shortly proceed to state the outline of the measure at present before your lordships, in the two bills which have been sent up from the other House of Parliament, for the purpose of reforming those municipal bodies.

The principle of self-election being, at all events, to be got rid of, it becomes necessary to substitute another mode of election in its place; and as the councils are no longer to elect themselves, the question arises, in whom the right of election shall be vested? Now, I should think nothing can be more natural, more safe, or more convenient, than the plan which has been here adopted, of vesting it in those who have already obtained the Parliamentary franchise—the £10 householders. In the first place, they are already in the exercise of the elective franchise; and, in the second place, they are a body recognised in the registry under the reform act; and, consequently, we have, ready made, as it were, a machinery by which to conduct the election. That is, of itself, an invaluable facility to the accomplishment of our present purpose; for we thus avail ourselves of every advantage that has resulted from the Parliamentary registration, and its advantages, as experience has abundantly proved, were not too sanguinely reckoned upon by the authors of the reform.

In the next place, I think it a material consideration not to have the qualification of the electors of the councils of burghs, different from that of the electors of the representatives of those burghs in Parliament. Such a distinction would be full of inconvenience, and, perhaps, danger to the system of representation now established, under the great measure of last session. Every one admitted the advantage of making that measure one on which Parliament could stand, and say that enough had been done, and that the constitution must not be constantly changing. Every one admitted that, having taken the qualification at £10, until some change of circumstances shall give us new lights, or experience place us in a new situation, which may require, and by requiring, justify, a deviation from the principles of the reform, no deviation ought,—rashly or lightly, or without the gravest occasion, the most careful deliberation, and much hesitation, and great reluctance—to be permitted. Such I take to be the opinion of those who opposed the reform bill, as well as of those who supported it. If, then, you were, instead of a £10 qualification, to give a £5, or even a lower qualification to the electors of the corporate body, what would be the consequence? The same man who, year after year, was exercising the franchise in a burgh on that qualification, would naturally feel that the difference was unjustifiable on principle, unaccountable, and inconsistent, and would be impatient of an arrangement which confined the Parliamentary franchise to a higher qualification than that which conferred the municipal franchise. I therefore think that the stability of the measure of reform would be placed in great hazard, if we were to lessen the amount of the qualification for electors of the councillors of burghs.

This is, my lords, reason sufficient, in my mind, for adopting the £10 qualification in the election of those functionaries. No doubt,

however, the registry affords the principal argument, in point of expediency, for adopting the same qualification. To that I attach the greatest importance, inasmuch as to think it of itself sufficient, were there none other, to justify this part of the plan. For if any other qualification is fixed, there must be a separate registration, and the Parliamentary one can serve no purpose but to confound the other. Then, if the franchise is to be vested in the £10 householders, and if the principal reason for giving it to them be the convenience arising from the existing Parliamentary registry being framed according to that qualification, it follows, as a matter of course, that it should be another provision of the bill, that the franchise so conferred shall be exercised according to the regulations established under the reform act,—that is to say, that the registry shall be decisive; that from the registry there shall be no appeal; and that the only questions at the poll for the election of the council shall be the only questions at the poll for the election of representatives, namely, the identity of the party, and that he continues, at the time when he tenders his vote, to hold the property in respect of which his registration has been made. We shall thus procure the inestimable advantage of getting rid of all objections on the spot, and of preventing endless litigation, whether before the returning-officer or subsequently.

With respect to the period of elections, many may be of opinion, that it would be more expedient they should not be yearly; and, I confess, that I myself felt inclined to favour a less frequent election. Nevertheless, on reconsideration, my objections were overcome; and chiefly by the universal and long-established practice of Scotland, which is that of yearly elections,—by the great discontent which would everywhere prevail, were there a less frequent choice,—by the unanimous agreement, on this point, of all parties,—they who differed on the franchise, on the qualification for it, and on the mode of its exercise, indeed, on almost every other part of the measure, with a rare unanimity agreeing on this, that the elections should not be less frequent than once a-year. But, at the same time, it is not proposed that the whole council should go out each year; because this would have a tendency to impair its efficiency, by breaking in upon its identity, and changing too much the persons in whose hands the administration of the burghs is vested. Accordingly, to preserve that identity, and prevent the inconvenience which would arise were it destroyed, it has been thought fit that only one-third of the council should go out each year, and two-thirds remain.

When I have stated this—when I have stated that the principle of the bill is to abolish self-election, and substitute election by £10 householders in its stead,—I have, in truth, stated the whole bill; because it does not go more into detail than is necessary to the accomplishment of those objects. All the rest is consequential; growing out of those two fundamental principles, and there may be said, without exaggeration, to be nothing more in the bill. Thus it is proposed to continue the mode in which the council chooses the officers,—that is to say, as the council heretofore self-chosen, elected the provost, bailies, and other

office-bearers, so the council, hereafter chosen by the householders, will elect the provost, bailies, and other officers, and perform all the other functions, and exercise all the other duties of the former council. Your lordships will therefore see, that if the principle be once admitted, that self-election is to be abolished, and a convenient and safe substitute provided for that mode, there will be found in the bill, not only as little change as possible in the constitution of these corporations, but no change at all, which is not the necessary consequence of the principle so admitted.

A NOBLE LORD.—Hear! Hear!

THE LORD CHANCELLOR.—I know not what my noble friend means by that cheer,—whether to assent or deny. If he means to deny, I ask him to point out one provision of the bill which does not follow necessarily from the abolition of self-election.

THE NOBLE LORD.—Hear! Hear!

THE LORD CHANCELLOR.—I am glad that I have altered the dissenting cheer of the noble lord to the tune of assent. I must say, that a smaller change than that which I have stated could not, by possibility, have been devised in the constitution of those burghs, provided you once admit the principle, that self-election is to be abolished, and also, what of necessity follows from thence, that it must be replaced by *some* election of a different kind. There is one point, however, which I must not forget to mention,—that all persons to be elected for the council must be burgesses, or become so on their election.

I have now to state, that the measures to which I would call your attention are of two descriptions, and that the articles of them are contained in two bills. The first of them applies to burghs, both royal and parliamentary, and which, therefore, have already a magistracy; the other applies to burghs parliamentary, without being royal, and for many of which, therefore, a magistracy must now, for the first time, be appointed. The second bill is the same as the first, in every respect except this, that it concerns burghs for which it is necessary to provide magistrates and a council. These are thirteen in number,—four large burghs, Paisley, Greenock, Renfrew, and Leith, and nine smaller; and the second bill provides that the four larger burghs are to have a council of sixteen each; five of the other class to have a council of nine; and four to have a council of six each. These councils are to be elected by the £10 householders, and after being elected, are to choose the officers, and in all respects proceed as the councils of the royal burghs. There is a third class of burghs, neither royal nor parliamentary, and which, in point of importance, are generally of an inferior description. Nevertheless, some are of sufficient consequence to require a municipal constitution. It was originally intended to introduce a bill respecting them; but it was found that previous inquiry would be necessary, in order to ascertain their number, circumstances, and every particular of their state; and that till such an inquiry should be completed, it would be impossible to frame the measure. In the next session of parliament, when the inquiry of the commissioners

shall have been finished, it will be more easy to bring forward a plan applying the principles of the present bills to those burghs.

I proceed to mention one or two objections which I am aware are made to this proceeding. It has been asked, in the first place, why we do not postpone these two bills also until we see the result of that same inquiry? My answer is, first, that it is not necessary to do so; that there is an abundance of known and admitted facts to justify, and indeed to call for the interference of parliament, in respect to those burghs which are the object of the present bills; and next, that the country of Scotland is in a state of extreme anxiety in regard to them, and would look on any delay, until inquiry had taken place, as the next thing to a mockery of its just expectations. Considering the long-standing abuses which had been complained of in the burghs—abuses, the existence, extent, and intolerable nature of which are amply admitted on all hands,—if you turn round on them and say that now, in the year 1833, it is necessary to institute inquiry, to examine into a matter of which no man doubts, to obtain evidence of what no man denies, in order to bolster up a system which all men abandon,—if you were to abstain this session from applying a remedy to such evils as these, on such a pretext as this, the people of Scotland would think that they received from parliament not what they had a right to expect, but little less than an insult. That, by means of the pending inquiry, information of great value will be received, and many necessary particulars ascertained; and that the legislature will thus be enabled to extend the present measure of reform, by applying it to different towns, or parts of towns, which are of necessity excluded from the bills now presented,—is quite certain. For example, there are considerable parts of the cities of Edinburgh and Glasgow, which neither come within the description of the first or the second class of burghs to which the present bills apply;—parts which are neither royal burghs sending members to parliament, nor parliamentary burghs by themselves; but which it is, nevertheless, expedient to include under the municipal jurisdiction of those cities to which they naturally belong, and which, yet without inquiry, nay without negotiation, without the consent of the parties on both sides, it is impossible to include. Take the case of the suburbs of Edinburgh, which are in the situation of parliamentary burghs in so far as they vote for members, but which, nevertheless, do not elect apart from Edinburgh, and are not royal burghs. At present they are excluded from these bills,—and why? Because, if you admit them for the municipal or corporate privileges, taking the parliamentary boundary, you must impose on them the corporate liabilities; you must bring them within the power of the corporation, and subject them, it may be, to imposts, which they would not take upon them for the municipal franchise. Place this option before them, and they might say they would much rather be excluded from the corporate privileges, so they escaped the corporate powers of the city. Other districts may not feel the same repugnance; it is said the Glasgow suburbs do not; but still that is fit subject for inquiry.

Out of that inquiry may arise treaty; and then the terms may be ascertained on which they should be admitted; when the legislature will, as a matter of course, extend the municipal franchise to them.

Another objection, and the only other to which I shall now address myself, is the question of the propriety of excluding burgesses. It is said, why should not the franchise be confined to burgesses; or why should it not be confined to £10 householders, being burgesses; or even why not admit both of them—both burgesses and £10 householders—to its exercise? One argument for this latter proposition, I confess, comes to me with some force; it is that, in adopting it, we should be following the analogy of the reform bill, inasmuch as that act, in so far as it applies to England, extends the franchise to freemen not honorary. My lords, I will not disguise my opinion that the provision here alluded to was not the best part of that great measure; it was, I think, one of its worst parts. It was my decided conviction at the time, which all the experience of the working of the bill at the late election has abundantly confirmed, that the operation of that provision would be highly injurious. I am heartily sorry that it ever formed part of the bill. I wish that it had never been thought of, or never adopted; and that would be to me a good reason for not making it a part of this bill. But the best reason is, that no such privilege was granted to burgesses or freemen by the reform act *of Scotland*. After the best consideration, the elective franchise in burghs was there confined to the £10 householders; and therefore, to give an analogous right to such persons, in regard to their magistrates, would be, not to follow, but to oppose the precedent of the reform act. There are other reasons why I should object to burgesses. It must be recollected that the English freeman and the Scotch burghess, though agreeing in their general character, differ extremely in the mode of their admission. I have already dwelt on the mode of election of Scotch burgesses. It is well known that men are admitted to that class without any property at all,—without being £10 or £5, or even £1 householders,—without any connection by birth or service:—merely for paying 16s. 8d.; or, as I have heard, in some places for as little as 5s. a man is qualified to be made a burghess. If, then, any man can be made a burghess almost for the asking, is that not a reason for refusing burgesses the franchise,—for contracting it within the more limited bounds of some reasonable qualification? On the principles of those who abhor all extension of suffrage, far more than those who would enlarge it,—but, above all, on the principles of those who dread anything like universal suffrage, and the admitting persons incapable of well exercising the franchise,—I say that we ought not to make the qualification consist in the mere payment of a few shillings. If it should be said, that by the strict law, a person has no absolute right to become a member of those corporations or trades by paying the fees, the answer is, that the practice seems to show that you have no power to exclude any man willing to pay those fees, possessing the usual skill, and liable to no legal objection. Is that not saying, that all men who comply with these conditions shall be admitted freemen?

It behoves your lordships to look at what will be the practical effect of the £10 householders in the election of councils, and this with reference to the respectability of the constituency which they will form. If the £10 householders be compared with the burgesses in places such as Edinburgh and Glasgow, where these latter are numerous and respectable, you will find that the great bulk of burgesses will come in as £10 householders. There are from 6000 to 7000 burgesses in Glasgow; and according to the information which I have received, from 5000 to 6000 are £10 householders. But as there are some burgesses not £10 householders, so there are £10 householders not burgesses. Thus, according to my information, of 7000 £10 householders, only 5000 are burgesses; so that if burgesses alone are admitted, you would exclude 2000 £10 householders, and admit 2000 men who might have no property at all. It is, then, in vain to say that the burgesses are overlooked in this bill. I understand that there are, in Glasgow, calculations which give a different result, making the proportion smaller; but even these calculations show that three out of five burgesses are £10 householders, or that of 5000, 3000 are so. In Edinburgh, I believe, I may say that the whole of the respectable burgesses are £10 householders, and that, consequently, the body at large must be amply represented. Then arises another consideration. I have stated, that as all £10 householders are not burgesses, so all burgesses are not £10 householders; and accordingly, there is a considerable number who cannot lay claim to a situation of independence, in point of circumstances. That number varies, of course, in different places; but taking the calculations which I have given, it is, in those large towns, very great. Now, on the whole, is it desirable that we should have electors with so low a qualification? Is it expedient that some should live in a £3, some in a £2 house, and some in no house at all? Is it expedient that the franchise should be extended to them? This operates with much less force in Edinburgh and Glasgow than in less important places; but let it be borne in mind, that this is an argument which has a force in all places, in the exact proportion in which the opposite argument is brought to bear against it. To show that the burgesses are not overlooked—that they are amply represented—I point to places where the great majority of them are not excluded from the franchise under the operation of this bill. But then it is said—“Do not go to Edinburgh and Glasgow; look to other places where there are many burgesses who are not £10 householders, and who are, consequently, excluded from the franchise.” But, my lords, these persons so excluded are, as I have before said, persons presumptively unfit for its exercise; for it must be remembered, that the principle on which we proceed is—that of admitting no man to the exercise of the franchise without paying regard to his circumstances, taking circumstances as a test—the only one we now have—of capacity to exercise the franchise well. Were they admitted to it, they would, in many cases, completely overwhelm the more respectable class of £10 householders. I will mention an instance in which this would be the case. There is a burgh where, of 800 burgesses, only 150 are £10

householders, so that we have here a matter of some 650 burgesses overwhelming the comparatively small number of £10 householders, the great bulk of them being persons of little or no property.

Is it expedient so to frame the bill as to give the franchise to a body of men, of whose circumstances all we know is, that some live in very small houses, and some in no houses at all? If there be any one who thinks that persons of this class ought to choose the magistrates, and through them to administer both the corporate funds and the civil and criminal justice of the town, to his mind my observation applies with no force; to all others—to all who wish to have some line drawn, by which the station of voters may be evidenced by their circumstances in life, my argument must appear unanswerable.

There may be several points of objection to these bills, which I have not taken notice of; and I have purposely abstained from going into their details. My object has been rather to go over those parts of the subject on which it was necessary to dwell, in opening its principles to the House. I wished first to bring before you the existence and the nature of the abuses, which, having been long reprobated by general consent, it is intended now to put down for ever; and then to give an outline of the manner in which this measure is framed, in order to effect that object. I have thought it better not to dwell longer on arguments that may be advanced either in its behalf, or in opposition to it, than was necessary to bring the question fully before you. I have done so as distinctly as I could—I wish I could have done it more succinctly:—and I have now to entreat that your lordships would bear in mind the feeling which pervades and possesses the people of Scotland in regard to the question. They are, I verily think, more eager for it than they have been for any other measure—I will hardly except parliamentary reform itself—which has ever been the subject of discussion in the Parliament of the United Kingdom. I own that I shall experience the greatest mortification should your lordships refuse to countenance these bills. I cannot disguise from you, that I should feel unmingled and bitter disappointment—that is, indeed, of little moment—but so would the people of Scotland, if your lordships were to frustrate an expectation, which having been long since very naturally raised, and of late most anxiously cherished, they now trust will be, because they know it ought to be, at length happily fulfilled.

S P E E C H
IN
DEFENCE OF THE ABSENT COMMISSIONERS,
ON THE
ENGLISH MUNICIPAL CORPORATION
REFORM BILL.

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

AUGUST 12, 1835.

I do not mean on this occasion to enter at length into the general subject now before your lordships. I have already had an opportunity of expressing my opinion upon the principles of the measure, as well as upon several of the main features of the bill, and the motion for going into committee appears not likely to meet with any very formidable opposition on the part of the House. I should not, therefore, feel myself at liberty to trespass upon your lordships' patience, however much it might gratify the noble earl,* who says he is delighted to hear me speak, and who nevertheless imagined that I had spoken about an hour longer than I really did—which looked as if he had been less pleased than he was willing to own; but I won't quarrel with him for that; I will only express my feelings in my turn, and assure the noble earl, that although he has this night by the clock talked an hour and a half, or somewhere thereabouts, to me it seems as if he had not spoken for five minutes. But my lords, the matter to which I wish to call your attention is neither the principle of the bill, nor its details, nor its general features, on all of which, as I said, I have before addressed you at large; but I must express some little surprise, and I hope I may be allowed to say, without any great impropriety of expression, some apprehension which weighs upon my

* Earl of Falmouth.

mind, and which I in vain endeavour to stifle, in consequence of the course which is about to be taken by one or two noble lords, and by one illustrious prince upon this occasion; for although I am delighted to find that I shall have an opportunity of giving my vote with them to-night, though I feel that theirs must be a valuable acquisition of strength to the promoters of this measure, and though the result of it will be sending the bill into committee, yet I cannot help just pausing for a moment to consider the grounds upon which that accession of force is given to us, and the ample declaration of hostility to the measure with which the promised aid is accompanied. The support of the noble duke* at this or at any stage of the bill, I should deem admirably calculated to meet the wishes of the advocates of the bill, if I could only see any reason to expect that it would extend beyond this stage of the process; that it would attend us through the committee, and would remain with us to the third reading; but, instead of that, we are told that these our supporters are against the whole principle of the measure; and therefore one naturally asks, for what do they go into committee? Is it to examine and discuss the details?

SEVERAL NOBLE LORDS.—Hear, hear!

LORD BROUGHAM.—I *have* heard; but hearing, I do not understand. I can easily comprehend how any noble lord who agrees with me upon the principle of the bill, should differ with me upon its details, holding either that some of them go too far, or that there are others which do not come up to the principle in which he concurs. This is intelligible, and consistent with the ordinary course of proceeding in parliamentary discussions; but the noble earl† says that he totally dissents from the principle; he abhors it in all its views; he considers the commission to have been illegal, and the whole inquiry void; he thinks that in the execution of their task the commissioners were unjust, partial, and oppressive, and that their reports are of no more value than so much waste paper—an opinion in which the noble duke concurs. Then, say they, the bill is founded upon these reports. This my noble friend‡ denies, as a general proposition; but, as it must be admitted that in some part such is the case, in the opinion of those noble lords opposite, the whole bill must be equal in value to waste paper, and the ground work of the fabric, in whole or in part, being unsound, the measure itself must be rotten. Then we are told that no one of the charges brought forward against the corporations has been borne out in proof; that all the report and the preamble said about neglect and abuse is groundless. This is a measure of spoliation, says one noble lord; it is utterly iniquitous, says another; it is fraught with injustice in every part, exclaims a third; and all of them, after thus quavering their separate notes against the bill, join in the chorus of injustice, iniquity, falsehood, and rottenness, both in the measure, and in the whole proceedings connected with it; and then instantly they come as it were *per saltum* to the determination of not throwing out so execrable a measure at once, but of voting for going

* Duke of Wellington.

† Earl of Mansfield.

‡ Lord Melbourne.

into committee, that the details of what they so heartily disapprove may be minutely discussed. But, my lords, it may be said I ought to be thankful for this mercy, small though it be, and not to quarrel with those who thus far are friendly to the progress of the measure. Then I will not conceal from you, that I cannot help regarding the conduct of the noble duke* and the noble earl† at the table, in point of consistency, by much the more praiseworthy. Theirs is, at all events, a perfectly plain and intelligible course. They disapprove the whole measure, like the noble duke‡ and the noble earl;§ and therefore they vote against the second reading. But I may be told I ought not to be so nice, and that I should accept the hostile committee as a boon, in preference to the worse calamity—the throwing out of the bill at once; and this makes me for one moment pause to compare the two evils. The one is the infliction of instant death, the other of slow lingering death, by continued pain and gradual exhaustion, by wearing down this great measure till it shall be reduced to the shadow of what it once was—till hardly a skeleton of its pristine form shall be left—till its own parents shall hardly know it, altered and mutilated in every part by the formidable force here, and here alone, arrayed against it. That is the alternative offered us, for rejecting which I am called nice—for not bursting forth in strains of rapture, and not gratefully acknowledging it as a boon! Than the illustrious Duke,|| I must say I never knew, generally speaking, a more fair, open, above-board antagonist; and knowing therefore his strong opinions on this and all similar questions, I certainly expected to have found him supporting the proposition of the noble duke¶ and the noble earl** at the table. “But no,” he says, “I dislike the principle as much as you; I think nothing can justify it; I hold you ought not to proceed in this course; this is not the way to go; here is a bill for reforming 185 corporations by one general sweeping measure, instead of which we should take them piecemeal, and proceed by 185 different bills, regularly, separately, slowly—so slowly that perhaps 185 sessions of parliament shall be required to get through them:”—a consistent and intelligible course enough, no doubt; but then how can you go into committee upon such a sweeping bill, if that is your opinion?

The DUKE OF CUMBERLAND.—My lords, I wish to say a few words in explanation. I merely said, if we came to a division, I should not vote with the noble duke†† and the noble earl;‡‡ but I never said, and for the reason I then gave, that I would vote for the committee. I should not vote for the committee, if your lordships came to a division on that question. I should retire altogether; but at the same time, when the committee does meet, every part of the bill which I can honestly and conscientiously support shall receive my best and most attentive consideration. This, my lords, is what I shall do, and it is the course which I have always pursued in your lordships’ House.

* Duke of Newcastle.

§ Earl of Mansfield.

** Earl of Falmouth.

† Earl of Falmouth.

|| Duke of Cumberland.

†† Duke of Newcastle.

‡ Duke of Wellington.

¶ Duke of Newcastle.

‡‡ Earl of Falmouth.

LORD BROUGHAM.—I understood the illustrious duke* to say, that he would not give his vote to the noble duke,† but vote for the committee.

THE DUKE OF CUMBERLAND.—I shall vote neither the one way nor the other.

LORD BROUGHAM.—God forbid that anything I have said should prevent the illustrious prince from voting against the noble duke.‡ Certainly I was not prepared for such a course—so very unlike the usual determined line of the illustrious duke. I certainly expected that he would at once have voted one way or the other. Really, it is a most extraordinary conclusion to arrive at from such premises—“I disapprove of this bill, and *therefore* I will vote for the committee”—and then, when I was staggered, bewildered by such a proposition, I receive, by way of comfort and as a help towards getting me out of the difficulty, an assurance—“Oh, I don’t mean to vote *for* the committee—I only mean to say that I will not vote against it, because I disapprove of the whole matter.” My lords, I cannot help thinking that all this holds out a most melancholy prospect to the friends of the bill, and to the country,—a cruel disappointment to those who feel so anxiously, so deeply, and, I will say, so universally, all over the kingdom, in favour of this great measure. For what have we to expect from this announcement, but that those who are against the whole measure in its principle and groundwork, will exert themselves to alter its whole frame and all its vital parts in the detail? How much of those parts and of that framework can we reasonably expect the labours of such a committee will leave standing, when those same persons, who say “let us go thither in order to discuss it,” tell you that they abhor the whole of it as a scheme of iniquity and spoliation? Can we expect one stone of its goodly fabric to remain standing on another, under the hands of those who hate it, and, like the noble duke, would batter it down, or, like the illustrious duke,* would retire from it, lest its falling ruins should overwhelm them—of those who, detesting, abhorring, distrusting its authors—still more distrusting the commissioners whom its authors appointed—hating the whole and every part of it, seeing no one fragment of it that ought to remain, are nevertheless prepared to go into committee, in order to deal with it? How, in God’s name! to deal with it, but to blast it to pieces, and leave not even the semblance of what it now is? I may be disappointed—I have been most agreeably disappointed on one point—the hearing of evidence. I firmly believed, as did a large portion of your lordships, that when counsel were called in to be heard at the bar, and still more when it was resolved to have evidence, the necessary effect would have been to protract the inquiry beyond all bounds; instead of that, however, I think the evidence only lasted somewhere about five days. That I am bound in justice to admit, contrary to my expectations, and contrary to the record of my apprehensions which I had placed at the time on

* Duke of Cumberland.
 ‡ Duke of Cumberland.

† Duke of Newcastle.

‡ Duke of Newcastle.

your lordships' journals; and I am also bound to admit, which I do in fairness to those with whom I communicated in the early part of the evidence, that no change could have been effected by anything said, either here or elsewhere, respecting our proceedings; for, before a word was said on the subject, the day and almost the hour when evidence was to be closed were calculated as early as Tuesday morning, by my noble and learned friend.* [*Hear, hear*, from Lord Lyndhurst.] In that respect, therefore, I was agreeably disappointed—but I am much mistaken, indeed, if the bill, on leaving the committee, be not so damaged, so mutilated, with so much that is important and beneficial struck out—so much that is noxious and alien to its principles introduced, and on so ample a scale of alteration—that its authors and those abettors who have sent it up to this House would be unable to recognise their own handywork. My lords, I *could* not, in justice to my own feelings, which are naturally very strong upon this subject, after what has just taken place, have refrained from making these few observations. And now, exhausted as I am with the fatigues of last night, and our long sittings of late (for though we generally have five months with nothing to do, so that the idlest of human beings could not have been burdened with our labour, yet the last five weeks of the session we have had so much on our hands, that the best workman, the most laborious of mankind, might well sink under the burden—some *change* must really be made in this system, or it is a mere joke to suppose that we can fully discuss the important measures which, at the end of the session, are all in a heap, for the first time, submitted to us; but the difficulty is not so much to perceive the mischief as to find out the remedy—perhaps if some mitigation of the strict forms of the other House permitted certain bills to be originated in this place, our labour might be more equally and satisfactorily distributed over the period of our sitting)—exhausted, I say, as I am with the fatigues incident to this period of our protracted sittings, I am anxious only for a moment to make one or two general observations upon the subject matter under your lordships' consideration. I don't mean to argue the case on its principle, being perfectly satisfied to leave it on the grounds on which I formerly rested it. I wish, however, for a moment to take notice of the opinion expressed by a noble earl,* with respect to the legality of the commission. He totally mistakes in fancying that the commission is illegal, because a power was inserted in it which the law would not bear out the commissioners in executing, if it had been resisted. "You admit," he said, "that your commission, if resisted, had no power of compelling parties to come forward and give evidence." And this he seems to think decisive against the commission. Now, your lordships will permit me to say, that if on this ground we fall under the reprobation of the noble earl, we bear that weight, which I admit to be heavy, only rateably, share and share alike, with about twenty or thirty other governments, in all the reigns of this country since the revolution of 1688. Since 1820 there have been fifty such commissions.

* Lord Lyndhurst.

† Earl of Mansfield.

But to go back only five years, what, on that principle, becomes of the Irish church commission of 1830? If a commissioner in that case had called on the holder of any benefice, and demanded, "How much do you allow your curate? Do you give him what the act requires? Do you violate the stipendiary curate's act, or do you not?" Had he the power of compelling the party to answer such questions? Nobody ever dreamt of such a thing. If the parson said, "I will not come to you—you have no right to send for me—I do not recognize your authority"—what would have been the result? The commissioners had no power to enforce their authority; and if the parson came, and hearing the question, turned his back, snapped his fingers in their face, and walked away—the commissioners were remediless and helpless. What then is the difference between that commission and the present? In fact, those commissions *were* resisted in nine or ten cases. Lord Guildford and some half-dozen more refused to answer under the English commission; the Irish parsons, to the same amount, refused to answer under the Irish—and an appeal was published by one clergyman, calling on his reverend brethren to resist the authority of the commissioners. A controversy continually existed in both cases; the commissions were in both resisted. But, although those who refused to give evidence were blameless, and the power of the Crown was with absolute impunity set at nought, the legality of the commissions was never for a moment questioned. Then Mr. Pitt's celebrated commission of Naval Revision, was also without authority.

A LORD.—There was an act.

LORD BROUGHAM.—I speak not of Lord St. Vincent's inquiry, a much more drastic measure, and one under parliamentary authority. Mr. Pitt's being less vigorous, and therefore less opposed by those who fattened upon abuse, had no such sanction. It was couched in exactly the same words with the present commission. As to the introduction of the word "deed," the argument drawn from it is one of the greatest hallucinations I ever heard of; because without it the words "all papers, writings, and documents," surely included "deed," which is a "paper," "writing," or "document." But I formerly demonstrated the legality of the commission; and now the question rather is as to the conduct of the inquiry. Upon that subject I wish to make a few observations. They shall be of a general and compendious kind, chiefly that I may avoid going into the details of the evidence; and they shall be as short as the justice due to the accused parties, the commissioners, will allow me to make them.

I will just suppose the case of a defendant, who, having lost his action with his neighbour, comes to your lordships and says, "Never was there such a judge—heaven save me from twelve such jurors! let me only come before you, and I will explain it all away—the prosecutor had no case—my attorney was bribed by the other party—my witnesses were corrupted or swayed by personal motives of spleen and spite—and my counsel did not do his duty; the judge was partial, the jury was ignorant; the whole trial was an iniquity, a

farce, a mockery of justice." Such representations are heard every day in Westminster Hall; the whole air of the courts is filled with them, and they pass perfectly innocuous over our heads, who are used to them, or if they descend lower, if they penetrate at all, it is to go in at one ear and out at the other, making no impression at all on any man of ordinary understanding. But suppose they were to make an impression on your lordships, and you were to say—"Oh, this is a poor injured man—an excellent conservative; he has been extremely ill-used; let him be brought to the bar, it will be a comfort to so worthy an alderman, a man of such sound principles, to be allowed to tell his own story, and produce witnesses, and have counsel to bawl against the judge and jury for about twelve hours and a half, applying to them every term of abuse which our language can furnish, together with a good number of terms which neither our own language nor any other does afford, and all the metaphors which can be provided by the kind of motley imagination that gives existence to patchwork." Suppose this proposal is acceded to, for hearing his own story after the witnesses had sworn against him; and the judge and jury decided against him; and you, accordingly, proceed to hear his story, told by himself, and supported by the witnesses whom he had called at the trial, and whom the judge and jury had disbelieved. You hear all the evidence on one side, and on one side only, not even taking the precaution which I heard to-night that a lord lieutenant of Ireland is bound to take before exercising the mercy of the Crown, that of sending to the judge who tried the cause, and hearing what he has to say, and what the reasons were which produced the conviction—without any such precaution—without making any communication at all to the judge—and with nothing received from him by way of explanation—for I regard a short and general letter written by two commissioners out of twenty as nothing—

LORD LYNDEHURST.—We have not the evidence taken before the commissioners; we applied for it, but it was not produced. It is no fault of ours.

LORD BROUGHAM.—We have allowed the commissioners to be attacked, but not to vindicate themselves. Unwarned, unsummoned, unheard, undefended, not even furnished with a statement of the charge against them, they are to be pronounced guilty of unfairness, partiality, faction, and almost of corruption, and we are to set at nought the verdict and judgment pronounced by those who heard the evidence. So much, my lords, to warn you against being led away by that most dangerous of all modes of inquiry, an *ex parte* statement directed against individuals in their absence; an appeal against a decision by one of the parties in the absence of the other, and of the judge who gave it. I say these commissioners did not proceed *ex parte*; there is not a tittle of evidence to charge them with it. They come to a town, they advertise their sittings; their sittings are public; they never hold one meeting in a private room; all mankind has access to their tribunal, and they never refuse to hear one witness, or one score of witnesses, brought forward by the corporations, though they

are now accused by speeches made against them, sometimes by honest, fair, legitimate speeches at the bar, and at other times by speeches in the form of questions, of which I cannot express too strongly my reprobation, let it offend whom it may. These commissioners, thus attacked in every way, and always in their absence, come to your lordships and complain of what is done; they tender explanations; they offer you evidence; they call upon you to hear them; they only say strike, but hear first—decide, but not before our defence is made; and your lordships, pursuing a conduct far different from that which they pursued, who threw their doors open to all parties, and courted all sides to come forward, will not even hear those commissioners whom yet you are prepared to condemn. I am not making this a subject of complaint against your lordships. I was the first to say, do not hear them; but I pray you attend to the argument; do not behave in this childish, and, I was going to say, womanish manner of running away with a word, and not hearing the reason, or stopping to understand the thing. The argument is strict and correct. I am ready now for argument's sake to tender myself as the only person who advised that the commissioners should not be heard. Your lordships, I have no doubt, would have given me a very ready support if I had said "hear them;" and if their case had occupied six weeks, and the reply consumed six weeks more, I should have expected from the enemies of the bill a still more ready concurrence. I must needs give noble lords opposite some credit for sincerity and consistency; and if this measure be so objectionable as they describe it, they would think themselves justified in using any means, even of delay, in order to stay the evil, or finally arrest it, by waiting till the country came to its senses, and awoke from the delusion which they now ascribe to it, as resulting from the excitement used to lead men's minds astray. But I want this bill to pass; I was determined not to play into the hands of its enemies; and therefore I was reduced to this most painful of all alternatives, either to sacrifice the measure or work grievous injustice upon these honourable men. That is my argument. I hope you understand it *now*. Granting that the refusal to hear the commissioners was the act of the whole House, and not of a party, and that I myself, placed under the pressure of a hard, harsh, cruel necessity, was forced to take my choice between either losing the bill and doing justice to these men, or carrying the bill and doing them the greatest injustice; still the choice is made, and the injustice perpetrated; and the commissioners are accused, and they are unheard. Then I defy any man living to dispute either the truth of the statement, or to resist the justice of the conclusion. Whatever the necessity may have been that extorted this harsh measure of injustice to those commissioners, you have done it;—you have not heard them; you have heard their enemies behind their backs;—and therefore I say you are bound as honourable men—you are bound as honest men—you are bound as Christian men—as men of ordinary charity and justice you are bound to give the fairest, the most candid, and most liberal construction to

the whole conduct of those whom you have felt yourselves forced to place in such unhappy, ay, such unheard of circumstances.

Let me now only remind you of the manner in which some of those charges were brought against the commissioners. There was one constant course pursued, which must have misled many of your lordships. It was this. The counsel took up the report and said, "I find the following passage in such a page." Now that he safely might do, because, perhaps, there were only two or three of your lordships furnished with the book in the House at the time. "I find the following passage in such a page," said the counsel to the witness, "is that true or is it false; is it a fair or an unfair representation?" Sometimes it was asked, "Is that an honest statement?" sometimes, "Is it scandalously false?" One recoils with amazement and indignation from such an examination. I have known, to be sure, at trials for felony, when counsel were not allowed to address the jury, a speech thrown into the form of a question; but when advocates had addressed the court for twelve hours and a half—when they had exhausted all their powers of speech, and poured out more than the vocabulary of our language affords in attacking these commissioners and their report, such a course was altogether without justification or excuse.

"Is this a fair and an honest account of what passed?" says one learned counsel; and at first the witness's answer, though it did not adopt the invidious expression, was quite consistent with the witness's meaning to affirm it. But when I asked him if he meant to charge the commissioners with dishonesty, he said, "Very far from it." "Did not the commissioners tell this scandalous falsehood?" cries another learned counsel. Again an equivocal answer from the witness, who, when pressed by my noble friend* or myself, said, "God forbid I should impute any such thing!" And strange to tell, both the learned counsel, upon their witnesses thus refusing to adopt those odious charges, one after another denied that they meant the offensive imputation,—denied that the contrary of honest meant dishonest,—denied that falsehood meant wilful breach of truth,—nay, even that the addition of "*scandalous*," which one should have thought was made for no other purpose than to distinguish moral from logical falsehood, gave to the phrase an invidious sense! Yet these counsel I know to be as honourable men as any in the profession. But to such shifts, such desperate expedients, does the zeal of advocates and the instigations of interested clients, drive men in a case like this.

But how was the inquiry further carried on? A charge of extravagant expenditure was to be met by a corporation (that of Sutton Colefield,) and, said the learned counsel, with an air of triumph, "Was the management of the corporation funds regulated by a decree of a Court of Chancery?"—"To be sure it was." "When was it passed?"—"In such a year." "Then it was not voluntary to spend the money so?" "Not at all." "You mean to say," (for one answer or even two or three never satisfied them) "it was under a decree of the High Court

* Lord Radnor.

of Chancery, and you are obliged, whether you will or no, to spend the money so!" said the complacent counsel. "Yes," said the willing witness. Now, what was the conclusion intended to be drawn from this? To what did all this triumphant colloquy of the gentleman with his only witness lead? Neither more nor less than this, that the commissioners had charged the corporation with a lavish expenditure, with extravagance, if not with embezzlement, and had suppressed the fact that it was all carried on under a decree of the Court of Chancery; and I venture to assert, your lordships, who heard the examination, believe firmly, up to this hour, that the commissioners had suppressed all mention of the decree. But no such thing. Look at the report of the commissioners, and you will find that this decree of the Court of Chancery stands in the front of it, stated as distinctly by the commissioners as by the learned counsel, or by his witness in the examination. My lords, I do not wish to occupy your time with these things; I have half-a-dozen cases before me of the same kind. We were at last obliged to stop the witnesses who bore their part in scenes thus got up, and ask whether the report did not state the very thing they were triumphantly detailing, when, in that awkward manner, and with the sheepishness of visage which even experienced and zealous town-clerks can sometimes put on, they acknowledged that it did. Such is a specimen of the sort of manoeuvre to which the learned counsel resorted. But not the only manoeuvre. Another was far more notable. Witnesses were prevailed upon to swear that the report was incorrect and false, by counsel affecting to read, as part of the report, that which is not part of it at all, and by stating that to be omitted from the report which lay before them staring them in the face. There are no fewer than three cases of this description with respect to Coventry alone.

The witness was addressed in the following words by the learned counsel at the bar:—"I see it is stated in a paper I have before me (the report of the commissioners,) that, 'neither the parish of St. Michael nor the other parish mentioned as forming part of the county of the city, are at all connected with the town; they are inhabited by an exclusively rural population;' is that true?" To which the answer was, that "A very large proportion of the parish of St. Michael is within the city, a large proportion of the parish of the Holy Trinity is also within the city, and there is a smaller parish of St. John the Baptist also within." Well, to be sure, this seems a very positive contradiction, and doubtless your lordships must have been of opinion that a report filled with such gross inaccuracies as that just read from it by the learned counsel, was totally unworthy your consideration. You see the contradiction is direct. The report (as read by the learned counsel) says, that the parish of St. Michael is not in the city, and that it is inhabited by an exclusively rural population, and the witness says "that is not true," for a large proportion of St. Michael is in the city. Nothing can be plainer, and the report is not to be trusted, if this evidence is to be believed. Probably it did not occur to any of your lordships just to turn to the page of the report cited, and to fol-

low the counsel while he read, or pretended to read from it, for the purpose of administering the contradiction. Of course you would take for granted that the passage which he made as if he read from the report really is to be found there, and consequently that there is no further room for doubt upon the subject. But what is the fact? I have here the report before me, and surely your lordships will share my astonishment on finding not only that the report does not contain the passage which the counsel pretended to read from it, for the purpose of asking the witness whether or not it was true, but that it contains the direct contrary; in short, that the statements of the commissioner and the witness absolutely agree, and that if the counsel had read the report correctly, the witness must necessarily have confirmed instead of impeaching it. Your lordships will remember the passage as quoted by the counsel, which I have just repeated from the printed evidence. Now here is the passage in the report itself, page 1795,—“The limits of the city and suburbs comprehend the parishes of the Holy Trinity and St. Michael in Coventry,” with certain exceptions. Then a little lower down the page, “The limits of the city comprehend, in addition to the city and suburbs, the parishes of Foleshill, Exhall, Anstey, Stoke, Stivichall, the greater part of Sowe, and a small part of Shilton. The limits of the city, as above described, comprehend the whole of the town. They comprehend also some land which belongs to the parish of St. Michael, but is detached from the main portion of it. Neither this outlying part of the city, nor the other parishes mentioned as forming part of the county of the city, are at all connected with the town.”

Now compare that with what the witness says. He says, a very large proportion of St. Michael and the Holy Trinity is in the city. What does the report say? Trinity and St. Michael are within the city, with some exceptions which are afterwards particularized. Then it is not the parish of St. Michael, but the detached part of St. Michael, which the report says is not in the city, and the other parishes referred to are clearly Foleshill, Exhall, and the rest of them. Now what do your lordships think of this sample of the bale? It may perhaps be said that after all this is a matter of secondary importance; and whether the report is proved to be right or wrong is of little consequence. But your lordships will remember that counsel thought it worth while to show, in the best manner he could, that it was wrong, and it is quite certain that the matter is one of serious moment in the controversy. This is one of the most direct instances brought forward among the very few attempted to sustain the very strong and very sweeping allegations of falsehood and inaccuracy made at the bar. Your lordships cannot doubt that the counsel brought forward the most striking cases they had to prove—this is one of them, and you see now, that in order to impugn the report it was necessary first to falsify it, and fabricate a new one.

Now I will take another instance. In the one which I have just quoted, the falsification of the report is obvious to any one who will take the trouble of turning to it; in the next which I shall quote, the

same expedient was resorted to, although it requires a little more attention to discover it. The report states, that the magistrates of Coventry are charged with having neglected the public interests from a desire to promote the advantage of certain of their own servants; and adds, that to such a cause is attributed the collision which has taken place between them and the directors of the poor. The witness was asked what could be the meaning of this passage; and he was examined at some length as to the particulars of the appointment of a chief constable, one Prosser, who, as it appeared, was recommended by the home secretary of state, and appointed accordingly. It seems that the directors of the poor had desired to have another person appointed; and the witness was very pointedly asked more than once, whether he did not believe that this appointment of Prosser was the instance on which the commissioner proceeded, in stating that the magistrates neglected the public interests to promote the benefit of their own servants. "According to the best of your belief, this alleged charge proceeds upon this, that the corporation appointed to this office of chief constable, at £140 a-year, not one of their own servants, but a person recommended by the home office, rather than take a person recommended to them by the directors of the poor?"—"Yes."—"The passage next following that I have quoted from the report, is this:—'To such a cause is attributed the collision which has taken place between them and the directors of the poor,' namely, this appointment of Prosser?—Yes."

Your lordships must observe that those words, "namely, this appointment of Prosser," are not in the report, but are a gratuitous addition by the counsel, who had been gradually leading on the witness, step by step, to swear positively that this was the instance to which the commissioners referred.

Now, I have no sort of doubt, that by this course of examination a double object was effected. First of all, your lordships, or such of your lordships at least as did not take the trouble to consult the report, would be led to believe that you were hearing for the first time the particulars of Prosser's appointment; and, secondly, you could not fail to be convinced that this was a most frivolous and unfounded charge, which the commissioner had ventured to make on such grounds alone, while he studiously excluded from his report all those particulars by which alone you could judge of its real character. I know at least that this would have been the effect on my mind, if I had not by this time seen reason enough to suspect the fairness of the examination which the learned counsel were instructed to make by the town-clerks; and if I had not been consequently led to take nothing for granted which was said either to be in the report, or not to be in the report, until I had examined it myself. Nor was my labour thrown away; for, in the first place, on turning to page 1800, under the head chief constable, I found all the particulars relative to Prosser's appointment set out, and much more fully set out than by the witness at the bar; the desire of the corporation to make the police more efficient, their application to the secretary of state, and all the circumstances con-

nected with his appointment. Then I turned to page 1836 of the report, which contains the statement quoted by the counsel, of the collision between the magistrates and directors of the poor, and I found that the report distinctly states the real cause of the collision, leaving nothing for the imagination or belief of the witness as to the meaning of the commissioner, but plainly stating that the cause of the collision, of the loud dissatisfaction and angry feeling excited among the inhabitants, was not the appointment of Prosser as chief constable, as your lordships were led to think, and as the witness swore he believed the commissioner implied, but the refusal of the magistrates to intrust the service of summonses and warrants of execution for non-payment of poor's-rates to the directors of the poor, and also their refusal to insert more than one name into a summons. This was the cause of the collision, because the costs of execution are stated by the report to be grievous, and often ruinous to poor families, when the sum distrained for is comparatively trifling. And it was charged against the magistrates, that they persevered in this system, in opposition to the representations of the directors of the poor, and many of the most respectable and wealthy inhabitants of the city, because their clerk was allowed to charge two shillings for every warrant, and because Prosser profited by the executions, whose salary, your lordships are to observe, although the counsel and witness studiously concealed that fact, the corporation had guaranteed to the extent of £140; and therefore, in that sense, there was no inaccuracy in calling him their officer; because they were bound to pay his salary out of the corporate funds; if his other sources of emolument should fall short.

Now this was the charge broadly and distinctly made by the commissioner. It may be true, or it may be false; that is not the question now. What I wish your lordships to observe is, that the counsel passed over the whole of these transactions in silence, and painfully brought the witness to swear that the collision alluded to arose out of the appointment of Prosser to be chief constable of police, although Prosser's appointment as police constable is not at all in question here; and in page 1800, where it is mentioned, all the particulars detailed at the bar, and many more are set out; and it is stated that the corporation had made this application to the secretary of state, wishing to render the police of the city more efficient. So that your lordships are made to believe that the commissioner suppressed the facts connected with Prosser's appointment, when in truth he gives them all, and assigns a praiseworthy motive to the corporation in the application which led to it; and you are also made to believe that this appointment was alluded to as the cause of the collision spoken of, when another most different cause is distinctly stated on the face of the report, in the very page from which the counsel was reading, and to which he was adding false insinuations of his own, and where Prosser's appointment is not at all in question, but is only incidentally mentioned, so as to furnish the groundwork for this most gross misrepresentation. I leave it to you, my lords, to say who are the parties guilty of suppression.

I will give only one more instance. The whole evidence is full of this sort of case; but I will content myself with citing a single instance. The report of the charity commissioners was mentioned; and it was brought as a charge against the corporation commissioner, that he had cited the charity report very largely, but had stopped short in the middle of a paragraph, in order to avoid quoting the praise given to the corporation (as it was said) for the management of its charitable estates. And surely if this were true, no better proof of the malignity imputed to the commissioners could be given, than that they should quote everything which seemed to blame, and stop short abruptly as soon as the charity report began to praise the corporation; and accordingly I observed that when this statement was first made at the bar, it produced that effect upon your lordships which might be expected. But it happens that it is not true; and even as the evidence has been given at the bar, your lordships may see that it is not true, although the questions on this point were asked in a singularly involved manner, and well calculated to produce the impression, that the witness's answers were in accordance with the counsel's statement, whereas in fact they contradicted it.

And, first, it may be as well to observe, that the counsel assumed a little too hastily that there was much praise in the charity report; for, on the contrary, that report exposes and condemns, in the strongest language, the various abuses which were detected in this administration; but after pointing out all the neglect and abuse, the charity report states, that in the last few years, exertions have been made to remedy the misconduct of half a century. It states, that "since the year 1828, several new corporators have been admitted, who have applied themselves earnestly to the reformation of the abuses of the corporation, and to the introduction of a clear system of management," and then it states the particulars of that improvement. Now the whole of this praise is copied into the corporation report, page 1812: every word, in short, that related to the corporation is *verbatim* inserted, and the only passage omitted is one relating to an individual, Mr. George Eld, the gentleman who was examined at your bar. It appears that Mr. Eld had been very active in these improvements; so much so, that the charity commissioners considered him to deserve a paragraph to himself, and accordingly they devote one especially to him, with a sort of apology to the rest of the corporation, hoping that they will not be offended because Mr. Eld's merits are thus prominently brought forward. Now this passage the corporation commissioner has omitted, and without any impropriety, as it seems to me; for he might not feel so acutely as the charity commissioners and Mr. Eld, the necessity of particularly lauding an individual when he was describing a general system. Your lordships are to remember that he quotes every word of the praise given to the corporation, notwithstanding counsel's allegation to the contrary. But then comes Mr. George Eld, and says, "Heyday! where are the vouchers in favour of my character?" and then he very naturally thinks, that if he does not get a repetition of the praise which is his due, the corporation is defrauded; for he is not

content with his share of the common praise freely given to all, and he instructs counsel to charge the commissioners boldly with having omitted all the praise of the corporation. Well: the charge is made, and so it must be supported; and then comes the awkward circumstances that the actual paragraph which praises the corporation is found in the commissioner's report. But this is got over with some ingenuity; for by first reading the paragraph in praise of Mr. Eld from the charity report, and then reading the paragraph in praise of the corporation, and, lastly, by asking Mr. Eld whether the passage which counsel had *last* read is omitted from the corporation commissioners' report; the witness either becomes confused himself, or is enabled to confuse your lordships, and swears that the passage *last* read is omitted, when in fact he knew, and came to swear, not that the passage, *last* read, but the *last but one* read, was omitted, namely, the praise of Mr. George Eld, and not the praise of the corporation, every word of which, as I have already said, was faithfully and conscientiously inserted.

My lords, is it necessary to go one step further, in order to destroy the whole effect of the evidence brought to impeach the report and attack the commissioners? Your lordships, by a large majority, cheered on these charges; many looked most complacently upon the case, as if it were proved; and some were so satisfied that they avowed their readiness to condemn both the workmen and their work, without the ceremony of asking an explanation or hearing the defence. You now see on what kind of foundation the charges were built, and how far the sentence would have been just which you were so very ready to pronounce.

These instructions to counsel were given by the corporate officers, and chiefly by the town-clerks. If, my lords, there had been but a single little clause, inserted in some snug and convenient corner of the bill, to provide that all who are now the incumbents of any municipal office should continue in the same, I doubt if we should have had half so many petitions presented. I am sure we should have heard but little of the evidence which has been delivered at your bar; and I believe that the learned counsel who addressed your lordships in behalf of the existing rights, with all the zeal of their anxious clients, the score or two of town-clerks now in London assembled, would have been at liberty to exercise their talents and display their animation elsewhere,—for the behoof of other parties, and to the edification of other courts.

My lords, another circumstance to which I cannot help adverting, is the attack which has been made upon certain individuals whom the commissioners had examined, an attack made for the apparent purpose of damaging the report and of vindicating the corporations, but which not being followed up by any impeachment of the testimony given by those individuals, vanished into smoke. Thus, in the case of Mr. Marryatt of Coventry, after a spell of an hour's length, after harassing the witnesses by putting the same questions to them again and again, I certainly expected that something would be elicited to

alter the nature of his evidence before the commissioners, and that Mr. Visger of Bristol would have fared no better. I naturally reckoned upon Mr. Marryatt being contradicted as to what he said he saw, and what he told of his own knowledge, even if it be admitted that the knowledge was acquired while he was serving his time with the town-clerk of Coventry. But although the learned counsel left no means untried of impeaching his credit, though he examined minutely into the fact of Mr. Marryatt having learnt what he swore from his situation in the town-clerk's office, not one word was said to show that what he told was untrue,—in not one tittle of his evidence was he contradicted, nor was one fraction of his statement denied. What then can it signify to the accuracy of the report how those who told the truth came by the knowledge of it? Here is a sample of the kind of answers given to the commissioners, a sample by which you may judge of the whole cargo, without further breaking bulk. Take another of the same kind. Mr. Merryman, the town-clerk of Marlborough, is called,—a sharp, clever young man, who was appointed at the age of twenty-two, being the son of the mayor,—and who, if he had been the son of any other man, might, I suppose, have waited until he was forty-two before he was honoured with the appointment, although from his appearance I nowise doubt of his fitness for the office. A question was put to him about the parties who had taken upon them to swear before the commissioners, that if Lord Aylesbury objected to a man, there would be no great chance of his being elected a burgess; and he answered by vituperating those who made such attacks, speaking of their spite and want of courtesy, and what not, and launching out into much praise, but of a vague and unprofitable kind, which he lavished upon Lord Aylesbury, and upon the corporation. But, after all, did he deny the fact? No such thing. He was asked by us—"Do you, Mr. Merryman, who are the friend of the corporation, the son of the mayor, and the eulogist of the borough-patron Lord Aylesbury,—do you assert, that if a man happen to give offence to his lordship, or is not acceptable to him, he has any chance of being elected a burgess? Do not tell us what so and so said from spite, but give us a plain answer to that plain question?"—"Then," said he, "the fact cannot be denied—I think such a person *would* have little or no chance of being elected." So that the only conclusion to which all the evidence on this head brings us, is, that a certain spiteful man told the commissioners the truth, that they believed what he told them, and that this unspiteful man, the friend of Lord Aylesbury, now admits that the evidence given by the spiteful witness was as true as the Gospel. The Oxford evidence affords another instance of the same course pursued by the petitioners, carefully avoiding the real question whether the report is true or not. There is much general praise sworn to of the corporation, and much blame of its adversaries. But not one word is said about the statement in the report, that of the 1500 corporators, not 500 take any part in managing the charity trusts, and that of these 65 are paupers receiving parish relief.

This, my lords, is another sample of the manner in which the exami-

nation was conducted, and of the impression which was sought to be made by dwelling upon fringes of the argument, pulling down things which nobody was interested in supporting, and suppressing those parts of the evidence which tended to establish the accuracy of the reports. I must say, that taking in the mass the evidence which was adduced by the learned counsel at the bar, I never saw any of a more futile nature brought forward in support of a charge against any public functionaries whatever. But I wish to give particular instances; and the one I now allude to is that of my excellent friend Mr. Drinkwater, than whom a more honourable and conscientious man (I might add, a more accomplished and able man,) I believe exists not upon the face of the earth. It suited the humour of my noble and learned friend* to designate him as a Whig;—I wish he were. But if he be, he has acquired his Whiggism since I left the Court of King's Bench and the Northern Circuit: which in one sense is somewhat mortifying, because all the time I had him under my tuition I never saw any appearance of Whiggism in him; and assuredly he comes of as good a Tory family as any of your lordships. However, he is now discovered to be a Whig; I can only say, it is at least as new to me as it is agreeable.

LORD LYNDEHURST.—I rise to set myself right, as to what has been said by the noble viscount opposite.—

LORD BROUGHAM.—The noble and learned lord must see how inconvenient the license is which he is about to take. Why should he wish, in the middle of my speech, to answer something which has been said, not by me, which would be irregular, but by another, which is absolutely unheard of? In the time of the Greek orators, it was customary to speak for an hour, examine some half-a-dozen witnesses to gain breathing time, and then go at it again; but who ever heard, even then, of *Æschines* interjecting an answer to *Demosthenes*, as my noble and learned friend would now do to the noble viscount, in the middle of the speech of some orator, whom I cannot tell the name of; for he must have been obscure indeed if I could liken myself to him, and his name has not reached our days. I really can allow my noble friend only to set *me* right by this interposition, if I have misstated anything; but as to his getting up, and replying to the speech of another man, I can hardly be expected to suffer that, unless I were much more exhausted than I at present, ill as I am, happen to feel. But I return to Mr. Drinkwater. If he did his duty as a commissioner, with perfect impartiality, it does not signify one straw whether he is a Whig or a Tory. If he has become a Whig, I suppose it is from experiencing the deficiencies of the Tories, and witnessing the excellent achievements of the Whigs, that he has got on the right side of the question; but I believe that he is no more a Whig than my noble and learned friend himself. Or, to take a safer comparison, than the noble earl at the table.†

LORD FALMOUTH.—I never was, nor ever will be one.

LORD BROUGHAM.—That is dangerous to say. How can you tell

* Lord Lyndhurst.

† Lord Falmouth.

that *your* conversion too may not come? However, a more flimsy charge never was made against mortal man, than that which is insinuated, rather than brought forward, against this gentleman. It was said, why did he take Mr. Visger's evidence out of court? But he never did so—never thought of doing so. He received, as was his bounded duty, in private, information upon which he might in public proceed; and not only can no blame be imputed to this, provided he examined all the evidence publicly, and did not decide upon what he had privately learnt; but he could proceed in no other course, unless he designed the whole inquiry to stand still, and to prove a mere mockery. Why, I should like to know how any men are to carry on an investigation of this sort? Are they to shut their ears against all who come to suggest topics of examination, and put them upon the track? Most clearly they are bound to hear all the information which is offered to them, although not to decide until they have taken evidence in open court; and that is precisely what Mr. Drinkwater did. He took the suggestion; he examined the evidence; he was put on the track; he pursued it; he made up his mind, but only to act upon the suggestion; he did not decide; he did not make his report until after a public examination of the evidence;—and then I come to that which is the *gravamen* of the whole charge. It appears that after he had inquired, some information came from the corporation party, who begged that he would put it also upon the minutes; and for refusing to do so, he is charged at one long step with having suppressed it; and by a jump from that step, he is accused of having made underhand a report, founded upon information derived from one party, while he rejected that which was tendered by the other, who now complain of this notable suppression! But what was the fact? The evidence tendered by the corporation related to an alleged improvement made after the commissioner had closed the inquiry, and left Bristol, and returned to London! Was he at *that* time to alter his report? Was he to change and to garble his statement, finished and founded upon what he had seen on the spot, and framed upon the evidence taken openly, in a legal, regular manner, in the face of the people? And this was he to do on the private communication of one of the parties, behind the other's back? If he had done so, then *indeed* I think he would have been liable to that charge which I hesitate not now to declare has been the most absurdly and unjustly brought against him of all the imputations made against all the commissioners.

I know not whether it will be proper now to trouble your lordships by going again into the case of East Retford, or the evidence upon which an attempt was made to impugn the testimony of Mr. Bigsby, who swore that he had seen a magistrate and a prisoner rolling together on the floor of the justice-room. I asked the witness whether Mr. Bigsby was a respectable man; his answer was, that "he was most highly respectable," and that he had been in partnership with the town-clerk. But then he endeavoured to show (as he could not impute want of veracity) that Mr. Bigsby must have been mistaken, and must have thought it was the magistrate when it was the consta-

ble who rolled on the floor. A more marvellous failure I never yet did see in any such attempt at reconciling testimony, which it is found impossible to displace! The witness referred to another case, clearly not the one Mr. Bigsby spoke of, but one in which a police-officer was rolling on the floor of a room in an ale-house with a felon of the name of Grimes; and then he admitted—an admission which was sufficient to put the whole explanation out of court—that Mr. Bigsby was never in the room of the ale-house at all. Does not this demonstrate that he could not have seen the policeman rolling with the felon on the floor? and that his statement could not have referred to what passed in the ale-house? Mr. Bigsby is not discredited; no one pretends to say he told an untruth. The only attempt made is to show he was mistaken, when he said he had seen a magistrate on the floor in the justice-room; and that attempt is prosecuted, by showing that in an ale-house where Mr. Bigsby never was, a policeman was on the floor. Can anything be more signal than the failure of this attempt? Then as to the report about Alderman Parker; that part was drawn by Mr. Cockburn from his own notes of the evidence. The notes taken by the other commissioner, Mr. Rushton, which I have seen, tally exactly with Mr. Cockburn's statement. To contradict them, the corporation might have called the short-hand writer who was in the room at the examination, who is here at hand, and who could have attended. But he is not called. They only examine a man who had taken no notes at all; and why are we to believe him rather than the two commissioners? Any one of your lordships must know that in a court of justice, where there is conflicting testimony—where there is word against word, or oath against oath—such an omission as that of calling the short-hand writer would put the case out of court, and establish the accuracy of the report as certainly as that two and two make four.

My lords, I think I have done enough to throw as much light upon this subject as suffices to vindicate the commissioners from any charge. If I did not in my conscience believe that I had sufficiently vindicated them in the mind of every intelligent, patient, and candid inquirer—every one who is seeking after the truth, and not after vengeance and injustice—no tedium to myself, no lassitude under which I may labour from the fatigue of last night, and, above all, no impatience on the part of the House, would induce me to shorten my statement by a single minute of time. I am performing an act of justice—I am doing a necessary deed—I am defending those who are accused behind their backs, and are about to be condemned without even being told what they are charged with—I am seeking to stay judgment, and, for aught I know, execution against those absent and undefended men; execution about to be passed upon the most valuable thing in this life, their character. The precious fame of eighteen or nineteen men, as honest as any upon whom the sun ever shone, is sought to be tarnished for party purposes, to gratify the malice of some, and serve the sordid ends of others. Charged with their protection whom you have not suffered to defend themselves, I am just-

tified in engrossing the attention of your lordships, even though it should be to the exhaustion of your patience, while I make the statements which I feel that it would be as unjust for me to abstain from making, as it would be for your lordships to refuse to hear, until I deemed, as I now do, that I have made a thoroughly good, sound, and perfect defence of those traduced and absent men. Having done this, I feel that I have only discharged a duty which rested upon me. I was never absent an instant during the examination of the evidence. I have made up my mind from no predilection in favour of the inquiry or of the commissioners who conducted it. I felt that this duty rested upon me as the author of the commission, and the author, or at least the person to whom had fallen the largest share in framing, this great measure—this necessary scheme of ample and general improvement. I have watched over its fate from its embryo state—from thence I have attended it through all its successive stages, and I am only persevering in discharging the duty I owe it in this which should be the moment of its maturity, but which I fear only precedes its dissolution. I feel, above all men, anxious that no adventitious source of blame shall be attached to it, either from the defenders of it, or from the foundation on which it is supposed to rest—that no extraneous weakness shall be ingrafted upon it—that no exotic rottenness shall be implanted in it—that no needless scathe shall befall it through the misconduct of any man connected with it, even of the men whose appointment I was aware of, and was, legally at least, amenable for—many of them being utterly unknown to me, but all recommended by those in whom reposed my entire confidence; so that I shrink not from the full responsibility. I am answerable for their appointment in the face of the people, whose hopes are centred in the passing of this bill. But I am yet more deeply responsible for the measure itself and its success; and if any of these men, contrary to my reasonable expectations, contrary to all I had a right to reckon upon from men so recommended to me, had failed in his duty—if the result of the present inquiry had proved that the choice of the commissioners was a wrong one—if the commissioners had proved to be unjust and partial men—if their conduct had turned out careless and ignorant, and unfair—had been found dishonest or neglectful—and if, through ill judging friendship to the measure, they had made themselves the worst of enemies, by corruptly executing the functions committed to them—in a word, if, by their deficiency or by their fault, they had cast any discredit upon the inquiry in which they were engaged, or upon the measure to which that inquiry gave birth, I should have been the first to shake off the contamination which would have attached to the measure and to myself from such a fellowship, and recoiled with disdain from a contact so impure. I should have given them a fair trial—I should have lent a patient hearing to their defence before I gave them up; but, being once convinced, I should have been the first to abandon them, as they had abandoned their duty.

I claim the credit, my lords, of having watched attentively, sedulously, and anxiously all the evidence given upon the conduct of

these men, but I claim more—I assert that no one sifted the conduct of the accused with more jealousy—none scrutinized it more narrowly, more inexorably—I was judged altogether impartial—I had no interest in protecting them if guilty, none in stifling the charge against them—my sole object was to discover the truth. And now, after hearing all that could be offered against them—after sifting, as far as I could without them, the charges brought—after examining the whole case, as well as I could in the absence of the accused—after hearing the evidence in support of the charge alone, and hearing only the *ex parte* statement made at your bar—I feel myself prepared, most clearly and most conscientiously, to pronounce their acquittal. I consider, indeed, that the bill does not stand upon this ground alone: if the commissioners had been proved to have exercised their authority improperly, and even if they had practised all the malversation imputed to them, it could well survive their condemnation; in pronouncing which, had they been guilty, I should have joined; but I see not the shadow of a shade of ground for the charges which have been fabricated against them.

One word now as to the feelings of the people, expressed in the language of their petitions. The noble earl* says, that the sentiments delivered are not their own, but such as have been put into their mouths by excitement and agitation. My lords, the proofs of this are about as solid as those brought against the commissioners. He has spoken of two letters franked by Lord John Russell, and sent to what he calls a radical gentleman at Weymouth, in consequence of which, meetings were held there, and petitions sent up to this House. “Now, how do I know,” argued the noble earl, if argument it could be called, “but that the same practice is carried on in other quarters.” Somebody it seems had seen two letters; but even if he saw the address, with the radical superscription upon it franked by Lord John Russell, had the informant opened the letter? Did he know what was in it? The noble earl does not pretend that anybody told him that; and is he to assume, that because Lord John Russell franked a letter without ever inquiring whether it was destined for a radical or a conservative, therefore his lordship was engaged in agitating the people of Weymouth?

We are told that the feelings of the people are not spontaneous; that they are worked upon by agitation; and that their acts are those of a deluded mob. I grieve to hear it—I feel some alarm. I think a deluded mob of 23,000 persons would be a very awkward thing to deal with; and that number of persons signed the petition at Manchester in ten hours. There was no time to call a public meeting, but in three or four days it would have been signed by 30,000 persons. This is the majority of the population of Manchester, when the women and the children—the persons who are not of the signing age and those who are not of the signing sex—are put out of the question. The petition at Leeds was signed by 16,000 persons after a public meeting holden there; signatures to the amount of 20,000 might easily have been obtained, for many went away from the meeting without sign-

* Lord Falmouth.

ing, thinking it would be superfluous to do so; but this number answers to a population of about 50,000, which is greatly more than a majority of all the people of Leeds. At Leicester, the petition was signed, in a few hours, by 9500 persons—that very Leicester which sent up their town-clerk to tell us that everything went on well in the administration of their affairs—that their justice was perfect—their magistrates paragons of excellence—that everything was satisfactory—that nothing within the whole compass of mortal fancy could be better than the state of their municipal affairs—that there were only a few persons of no mark who showed any discontent, and imagining they had found a better system, were out of conceit with the old one; and yet it turns out, after all these panegyrics, that this petition in favour of the bill is signed by a number of no less than 9500 of these pleased, contented, and highly gratified inhabitants of the town of Leicester—a number amounting to four-fifths of the population—a petition, too, containing expressions so strong, that your lordships in your indignation refused to allow it to be presented. If, therefore, four-fifths of the people there are so ill pleased with your lordships from the mere suspicion that you do not mean to pass this bill, but that you mean to maintain this popular, and excellent, and altogether perfect regimen, that of the present corporation, at least such a circumstance may be regarded as an indication that the public mind in Leicester is not quite so contented as the town-clerk of that place would complacently represent.

My lords, I draw one conclusion from the whole of the arguments at the bar—from the fierce opposition to the bill—from the violence of the witnesses examined. It is, that the people of this country are utterly discontented with their present municipal government, and that the municipalities know it. Do I ask a proof that the people all deeply desire an alteration—that this wish is universal, strong, deep-rooted—that, if there are any exceptions, it is among those interested, like the town-clerks whom we have heard at the bar, and the other witnesses almost all directly connected with the present corporations—such proof is furnished by the conduct of the corporations themselves. If the friends of the present system really believe what they often say, that its constitution and administration are such as to command the respect and to win the hearts of all men—if they and their works are the delight of the human race—if their present magistrates are perfectly acceptable to the people—if there is no hostility between the corporate bodies and the inhabitants, but everything is contentment and sunshine all around them—then why so much afraid of this bill, and of new elections by the general body of their fellow-citizens? Why so much afraid of the householders—of those to whom their past conduct has given such satisfaction? Why insist upon electing one another, and not trust their dearly beloved selves to the voices of their much loving fellow citizens? I once or twice tried that argument with the town-clerks whom we examined, and when they did not perceive the drift of the questions, they got into the net of this reasoning. At first they answered very glibly. “Are the public officers,” I demanded, “very unpopular?”—“No, not in the least.” “Are they all acceptable

to the people?"—"Yes." "They are popular, then, in the place where they live?"—"Certainly." "Do others think so beside yourself?"—"Yes, others think so too." "The great majority of the rate-payers are for them, of course?"—"Yes." "Then, I suppose, if they had to choose a new corporation, the present men would be re-elected?" The witnesses did not quite so much approve of that question. One of them from Rochester fell into the snare, and said, "Yes; O yes, they would all be re-elected." But this seemed to raise the indignation of the learned counsel, who began to think what kind of a case he would have if it were admitted that the only difference provided by the bill would be, that the same individual aldermen, wearing the same gowns, would have their names changed to that of members of the council, and that all the argument of spoliation, and injustice, and oppression would be swept away. But I judge from every one of these cases produced against the bill and the report—from the firm dislike towards the measure shown by the whole of the corporations—from their hatred to open election, and their determination to cling by close election and self-election—from all this I judge that the feeling universally pervading the present rulers of burghs is, that they will not be re-elected by the people, because their administration has not been satisfactory, and because the whole system, both in theory and in practice, has secured for itself the distrust, the aversion, the hatred of the community at large. This was the case in Scotland two years ago, on the passing of the bill which I had the honour of carrying through this House, vigorously opposed by my noble friend* opposite, and my noble friend on the floor.† That great reform was followed by a total change of the magistracy throughout Scotland, which shewed that the Scotch people were not enamoured of their municipal system; and I look, as do the English corporations themselves, to the like result here.

My lords, I really hope that your lordships will go on with this bill in a friendly spirit. I hope, at least, that my gloomy expectations have a chance of being deceived, and that the sharp alarm which penetrated my mind upon the announcement of the noble duke, this night, for the future fate of the bill, will prove to have been needless and groundless. I have no words to express my sense of the importance of those interests which are involved in the fortunes of this measure; but I leave it to your lordships, with the hope and the prayer that you will suffer it to become the law.

* Earl of Haddington.

† Earl of Rosslyn.

DISCOURSE

ON THE LAW OF

MARRIAGE, DIVORCE, AND LEGITIMACY.

INTRODUCTION.

MARRIAGE, DIVORCE, AND LEGITIMACY—BILL OF 1835—SIR WILLIAM SCOTT.

THERE is no one branch of the law more important, in any point of view, to the great interests of society, and to the personal comforts of its members, than that which regulates the formation and the dissolution of the nuptial contract. No institution indeed more nearly concerns the very foundations of society, or more distinctly marks by its existence the transition from a rude to a civilized state, than that of marriage—supposing always that the rights of property can hardly be unknown in any period of society, and that marriage is not to be considered as coming within this description. There is no branch of jurisprudence, too, which it would be more for the interest of nations, as well as individuals, to have established upon the same grounds in all countries—and yet unfortunately there is hardly any one which exhibits greater diversities, both in its detail and in its fundamental principles in the constitution of different states. To go no further than the communities which compose the Christian world, and which differ from most others in prohibiting polygamy, (those others differing widely among themselves as to the conditions under which plurality of wives shall be permitted,) while in some countries marriage is a merely civil contract, and may be dissolved—in others it is a religious obligation, from which no act of the parties can release them. In those countries where it is dissoluble, one system permits the tie to be broken at the suit of the wife as well as the husband, while another only recognizes the misconduct of the former as a ground of divorce. In some places mutual consent is a sufficient ground for terminating a connection, which consent alone could have formed—in others, nothing but the criminal act of one party can release the other from the obligation of the contract; while in several countries conduct far less than criminal, as mere desertion, or defective temper, or incompatibility of character without any actual offence at all, is held a sufficient ground of divorce. So the rights of the issue are variously dealt with in the different systems of law. The child in one is held legitimate if his parents intermarry after his birth—in another, he is excluded absolutely from all filial rights if born before the marriage—in a third, he may, though a bastard, in peculiar circumstances, without enjoying these rights himself, transmit them to his issue, as if he had been all the while legitimate. The manner of entering into the contract—the circumstances which shall constitute a marriage—the guards by which parties and families shall be protected against imprudence and surprise in the formation of so important a connection—are equally various. While, in one place, the mere act of the moment testifying a consenting mind in both parties, binds them for ever; in another, various solemnities must be adhibited, purposely contrived to render the unreflecting formation of the union more difficult. Here, all persons of

the earliest years of legal capacity, and while yet in mere childhood, are suffered to bind themselves to each other for life—there, until a riper age, the consent of others is required to make the contract effectual. The rights consequent upon the matrimonial union, and the remedies for their violation, are equally various in various systems; but our present concern is only with the validity of the contract, and its effects upon the status of the issue, and more especially with the anomalous condition of the laws prevailing on this important subject in the different parts of the United Kingdom.

No one could beforehand have supposed it possible that two countries connected together as are the northern and southern portions of Great Britain, could allow a year to elapse without some attempt to assimilate their law of marriage and divorce. If a traveller, returning from some remote quarter of the globe, should tell us that he had been in a country where the inhabitants were, on one bank of a fordable river, allowed to marry at twelve and fourteen years old by merely pronouncing five or six words, while on the other side of the stream, they could not marry under twenty-one, without the consent of their parents, and in neither case without religious ceremonies; that yet if the latter class walked across the river they might validly marry at any age and without consent; and that this marriage was held as valid in their own province to all intents and purposes, as if they had been of full age, and had married with the religious solemnities prescribed; that on the northern bank of the same river, the marriage contracted there might be dissolved by sentence of the courts of justice for various reasons, but on the southern the contract was indissoluble; that though a marriage contracted in the south could not be dissolved in the north, nevertheless, if the parties to the southern contract chose to have it dissolved, the northern courts would do so, and then they might marry again there, but if they came and married south of the river, they would be guilty of felony; that the same person is a bastard in one part of the country and legitimate in another; nay, a bastard in the same part when he claims landed property, and legitimate when he claims personal effects—incapable of inheriting half an acre of land, but capable of succeeding to a million of money, all secured upon landed property, and so secured as gives him the power of taking immediate possession of half a county or half a town. Surely such an account would be at first received as fabulous; but if credit should be extorted by the character of the narrator, all his hearers would in one voice exclaim that the people governed by such laws must be sunk in the lowest state of barbarism, and that at any rate so barbarous a state of things never was calculated to endure for a month, and could not last for a year without producing the most inextricable confusion. Nevertheless, such is exactly the condition of England and Scotland at this hour—such it has been in most particulars time out of mind—in all particulars for nearly a century—and yet the intercourse between the two countries has been constant and uninterrupted, and their relations of blood, marriage, property, sect, party, have been as intimate as can be those of two nations inhabiting the same territory, and separated only by a narrow river, or in many places by a fence, or even in some by an ideal line of demarcation.

It must be further admitted, that by the modifying effects of manners upon institutions, the contrast and the conflict of the laws have produced far less mischief than might reasonably have been expected to result from so anomalous a state of things. Nevertheless, that very great evils have arisen from the diversity cannot be doubted. The provisions of the English marriage act have become in many instances wholly nugatory—and they have become so, not in all cases, but only in the case of wealthy persons, that is, in the very cases which the law was principally framed to meet. Except upon the northern border, no persons in humble circumstances can repair to Scotland for the purpose of evading the provisions of the English act. Upon all who cannot afford a long journey, those enactments are imperative and effectual; but whoever can afford to pay that price finds them a dead letter. Yet the chief object of the act was to prevent rich heiresses from being married before due care was taken to secure their fortunes; and to protect young heirs from being inveigled into unequal and injurious matches before they came to years of discretion. Now, whoever has such designs in view, can always command the means of performing the Scotch journey, and thus putting the law at defiance. It is well known that at one time the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, and

the Lord Privy Seal, were all married at Gretna Green, and had issue after marriages contracted there. There needs no more to prove the absurd and incomplete state of our marriage law in its most important provision, or to show that either the restraints upon marriage in the one country ought to be abolished, or the power of escaping from those fetters by removing for a few minutes into the other, ought to be taken away.

That those restraints, however, are salutary, no man of reflection can doubt. It is manifest, that a contract so momentous in its consequences to the parties, and to those whom its immediate operation is to call into existence, ought to be fenced and guarded by peculiarly ample precautions against haste, or surprise, or design, or improvidence. Can anything be more monstrous than that he who until he has attained the age of twenty-one cannot dispose of or burthen an acre of his land, or bequeath a shilling of his money, or bind himself by the most insignificant contract which can be written or entered into by words, should yet be permitted to form an union which must last for his life, affect all the estates and money and honours of which he can ever be possessed, and give birth to a family for whom he may be absolutely without any means of providing? A boy of fourteen and a girl of twelve may, in Scotland, form this important union by speaking a few words; but neither can bind themselves in any other respect until they have attained the age of twenty-one years complete, and then they can only bind themselves according to certain rules, and with the safeguards of many solemnities to protect them against fraud or surprise, or even rashness and indiscretion. No one, therefore, could seriously entertain a thought of effecting the assimilation of the two systems, by extending to England a law so barbarous and so full of uncertainty as the Scottish marriage law. But that law might well be altered with great advantage to the community, and made more nearly to resemble the English. What real objection can there be to introducing some check upon the marriage of minors? Is it so desirable a thing that every facility should be afforded to the arts of designing persons, and every obstruction removed to the consummation of a design formed in a moment of thoughtlessness, or of excited passion—a design which must constitute the obligation of a whole life, and affect every one of its transactions? Which of us can be interested in smoothing the path of the unprincipled fortune-hunter, and throwing the inexperienced heiress, in her most tender years, into his net, or aiding the contrivances of the crafty veteran who has her own antiquated charms, or her daughter's meretricious allurements to dispose of, in entrapping the unfledged brood of a wealthy or a noble nest? It is painful to the feelings, and it is trying to the patience, to hear men speak with alarm of any alteration in the very worst part of the Scotch law, as if it were an infraction of some peculiar national privilege, and regard the introduction of a manifest and great improvement from foreign systems, as if it were a surrender of some badge of independence, or a stain upon public honour.

If it be true that the Scotch law is the very worst possible, it is equally true that the English is not the very best upon this cardinal point. But it is not in the securities provided against unfit matches; against these, as far as they go, on no intelligible principle can any complaint be raised; but they are undeniably exposed to the objection, that they are not sufficient for their purpose. The requisite of publication of banns operates only in small parishes; in a church where, as at Manchester, some hundreds of publications are made every Sunday, no notice whatever can be taken of the names read over, and, consequently, no publicity at all is given to the intention of marrying. This arrangement of the law becomes the more ineffectual, in consequence of the enactment declaring the marriage valid although the banns should be published in a parish to which neither of the parties belong. Hence all the clandestine marriages are advertised in some very populous parish, or some parish remote from the residence of those interested in preventing the match. If the age of consent were reduced from twenty-one to eighteen, there could surely be no objection to making the consent of parents or guardians a condition precedent to the validity of the contract. Indeed, even without any alteration of the age, there can be no possible objection to making this a condition *sine qua non*. For the law as it at present is framed means to make the consent essential, or it means nothing at all. It means, it can only mean, that no minor shall be allowed to marry without that prescribed consent. The alternative of publica

tion of banns is only given to meet the case of those having no parents or guardians to consent, or of the parties not being minors. Yet it affords a means of escaping altogether from the exigency of the law. In the ceremony of publication itself no virtue whatever resides; and unless an infant without consent publishing his intention to marry can be deemed to stand in a different position from that in which he would have stood had he not made the publication, no reason whatever can be assigned for relying on that wholly insignificant act. Suppose the question related to a contract of some other kind, and that it were the policy of the law, for example, to prevent spirits from being sold by any person under a certain quantity (as the gin act in fact means to do)—would any one ever think of requiring that those who intend to sell spirits should advertise their design and address in some paper any where, however remote from the justices of their own district, to enable those justices to watch their shops? No. The sale of the small quantity would be pronounced invalid, and the seller prevented from recovering the price, as indeed the law has in this case provided. It is quite ridiculous to endeavour to prevent marriages without consent, by requiring notice to be given, and yet make the marriage valid, instead of prohibiting the marriage altogether, which the policy of the law clearly means to do, but does most ineffectually.

This, then, would manifestly be an improvement on the laws, of infinite importance—to make all marriages of minors without consent void, adjusting, if necessary, the age differently, and particularly making it less in the woman's case; and to make the laws of both Scotland and England the same upon this important subject. But should that be reckoned too great a change; and especially should there be found insuperable objections to the alteration of the Scotch law, there can be no possible reason for retaining the present most absurd and indeed disgraceful anomaly, of having the law framed in England so as to make the neighbourhood of Scotland open a door for escaping its enactments whenever there are pecuniary means within the reach of the parties to the evasion. The Scotch cannot possibly complain if, their own law being kept in the same rude state in which we now find it, we only provide that it shall no longer be made the instrument of tacitly abrogating the law of England with respect to English marriages. We have at least a right to require, that if the Scotch must still marry in their present way, their custom or their law of marriage shall be confined to themselves, and not permitted to frustrate our English law of marriage in its most important enactments.

The bill which was entertained by the House of Lords in 1835, had for its principal object to prevent a Scotch marriage between English parties from operating differently from an English marriage between the same parties; and it sought to accomplish this by requiring as long a residence in Scotland as the time taken by the publication of banns in England. This remedy, therefore, assumed that the English law, with all its manifest defects, was to remain on its present footing, and only removed from the legal system of the two countries that gross anomaly by which the law of the one nullifies that of the other. It would, if carried, prevent all runaway Scotch marriages; but it would both leave the English law defective and inefficient to accomplish its own purpose, and it would leave the Scotch law as bad as before. The true remedy is that more ample change of the law, which shall effectually prevent marriages of minors without consent, in both countries, by declaring such contracts absolutely void.

Another mischief of the present system arises from the conflict of the laws respecting divorce in the two countries. By the Scotch law, an English marriage can be dissolved effectually in the Scotch courts, according to the doctrines held by those Scotch courts. But the English courts hold that such a divorce is wholly ineffectual, and if a party so divorced in Scotland afterwards marries in England, he is punishable as for polygamy, and the marriage is void. If, however, after such a Scotch divorce, he marries again in Scotland, this Scottish marriage is held in Scotland to be valid. A plain conflict hence arises between the laws of the two countries, and if an English honour or estate were claimed by the issue of such a second Scotch marriage, it is difficult to say how the English courts might decide, though most probably they would pronounce against the legitimacy. If so, the same person would be a bastard in England, and legitimate in Scotland; the English estates and honours of his father would go to another person, while the

Scotch estates and honours of the same father would devolve upon him. Cases might be put of still greater complication and anomaly, where, in the settlement governing the descent of the property there were shifting uses. If, indeed, the Court of Appeal, the House of Lords, should determine in a Scotch case against the validity of the Scotch divorce, and of the new Scotch marriage, then the Scotch law would be declared to be different from what it is now held to be, and this conflict would be avoided. But it is on every account far more expedient that such delicate questions should be settled generally and prospectively by some new law declaratory or enactive. The bill of 1835 proposed to prevent, under certain regulations, the Scotch court from dissolving English marriages. But it is manifestly improper to prohibit all such divorces generally, inasmuch as it would be inflicting a severe hardship on a party to declare that whatever might be the conduct of the other spouse, though both were domiciled in Scotland, no remedy could be obtained without resorting to England. The bill, accordingly, proceeding upon the same principle of preventing collusive proceedings in fraud of the English law of divorce here, as in the case of marriage, rested satisfied with prohibiting the Scotch courts from dissolving English marriages without a certain period of real residence by the parties in Scotland.

The discrepancy between the laws of the two countries on legitimacy, gives rise to another conflict, and to very inconvenient and absurd anomalies, detrimental to individuals, and discreditable to the law. The civil law, which allows legitimation *per subsequens matrimonium*, being received in Scotland, while it was rejected by the celebrated answer of the barons to the prelates in the statute of Merton (Hen. III.), *Nolimus leges Angliæ mutari*, if a person born before the marriage of his parents in Scotland, claims English land or honours, he has been held disentitled, though in Scotland he has an indefeasible title to inherit both. Thus he is bastard on one side of the Tweed, and legitimate on the other, and that, although his parents were *bona fide* domiciled in Scotland—nay, although they never had been in England. The like happens if he claims personalty in England—he can obtain this succession with certainty as if he were legitimate, while he cannot inherit land. So he can inherit all beneficial encumbrances on land, as mortgages, with all the remedies incident thereto; but one acre of the land as *terre-tenant*, he never can inherit. Thus, even where there is no collusive act, nothing colourable, nothing done *in fraudem legis*, this *conflictus legum* makes the same individual legitimate and bastard at the same time; legitimate in one part of the island, bastard in another—legitimate when he claims personal, bastard when he claims real estate—legitimate or bastard, accordingly as he resorts to the courts on one side or on the other of Westminster Hall. To cases of this sort the principles of the bill of 1835 applied in a materially different way from their application to the former heads, because there was here no question of preventing evasion of the one law by the means which the other furnished. It was proposed to make the law of the birth-place govern the question of the party's status; and this would plainly have prevented any evasions, such as might arise if the rule were taken from the place of the marriage. In case the birth-place were Scotland, and the subsequent marriage took place in England, some difficulty might arise; and therefore it would be expedient that the legitimation should only be effected by the subsequent marriage taking place, as well as the birth of the issue, in Scotland.

It is impossible to close these remarks without observing upon the singular state of the English law respecting the dissolution of the marriage contract. It is quite peculiar, and can be defended upon no principle, whether of justice or of expediency. By the rules of our jurisprudence marriage is indissoluble. No court has the power to dissolve a marriage originally valid. What are called sentences of divorce in our ecclesiastical courts, are either mere sentences of separation from bed and board, which can at any moment be put an end to by the parties coming together, and which leave the marriage subsisting, only that by the provisions of a statute they prevent any prosecution for bigamy, in case of the parties contracting a new marriage, which new marriage is invalid in law, and therefore only the outward ceremony of a marriage—or they are sentences declaring that there never was a marriage validly solemnized. The law, therefore, will not recognise the possibility of the nuptial tie ever being loosened. As far as the law goes, nothing done

by either party, or by both, can ever put an end to the contract; and, therefore, if it is to be determined in any case, this must be effected by a special law made for that particular case, as a special law may be passed to take away a man's life or his property, which the ordinary laws could not touch. In holding marriage indissoluble, the English law follows that of catholic countries, where nothing but the sentence of the Pope—held to have the force of a release from Heaven—can set the parties free from the obligation of their marriage vows. But those countries hardly ever present an instance of such papal interposition; and very many individuals hold their vows in the face of God, at the altar, to be of a force so binding, that not even the power to loose as well as bind, which resides in St. Peter's successor, can work a valid release from them. In England, however, where the contract is now held to be by law absolutely indissoluble, it appears to have been otherwise regulated in catholic times; and it is somewhat singular, that, while the Romish religion subsisted among us, though certainly after the papal power had been renounced, and courts were established for ecclesiastical purposes under the temporal supremacy of the Crown, sentences for the entire dissolution of the contract, that is, divorces *a vinculo matrimonii*, were used to be given by those new tribunals. This has been entirely disused for the last three centuries, and the law upon the subject is now, and for so long has been, quite fixed. There has, however, during the last hundred and fifty years, been introduced the practice of effecting divorces by a parliamentary proceeding, which, though it be, in principle and in its forms, the making of a new, a special, or a private and personal law for each occasion, (what the civilians of Rome called *Privilegium*,) has, nevertheless, become so ordinary a measure, that it is resorted to, and reckoned upon, as if it were one of the ordinary remedies provided by the law; and it has become subject to rules and regulations, as well known, in governing the discretion of Parliament in making such new laws, as any of those which constitute the practice of the courts in administering the old and general laws. The limitation of legislative discretion has, no doubt, prevented many of the mischiefs to which these proceedings must otherwise have given rise; nevertheless, it is impossible to conceive anything more contrary to all sound principle of every kind.

In the first place, the remedy is only open to one of the parties. The infidelity of the wife gives the husband a kind of right to have the marriage dissolved by a bill; and it is a right so well understood, that he obtains his divorce in this way as a matter of course, provided his conduct appears to have been unexceptionable, and that he has complied with the standing orders, which require him to have obtained a verdict in an action against the seducer, and a sentence of separation in the consistorial court. Nay, so much is this regarded as a matter of course, that the common law judges have sometimes directed juries to find for the plaintiff, who was complaining of the loss of his wife's society; this being the gist of the action, while he was proved to have lived for years separated from her. Even in one case where he had made her an allowance upon the condition of her never coming within twenty miles of him, the court said the verdict was wanted for enabling the party to obtain a divorce in Parliament;* forgetting that the standing orders required a verdict as a test of the conduct of the party, and chiefly to prevent collusion, and that if juries returned verdicts, merely because bills could not pass without them, the test would cease to exist. This error of the judge, however, shows how much the proceeding in Parliament is recognised as a matter of course, on the husband's part. But the wife has no such remedy; the rules of parliamentary practice are just as peremptory in excluding her from it, whatever be the conduct of her husband; it is quite as much a matter of course that she should have no divorce, how gross soever may have been his maltreatment of her in every respect. Nor does the rule of her exclusion ever bend to any circumstance of aggravation, except that of incestuous adultery proved with her sister or other very near relation; and of such exceptions there are but three instances known. Where the husband had been guilty of unnatural crimes, beside ordinary ill-conduct, the wife was refused her remedy. Now, although it cannot be

* This was so ruled, but without due consideration, by Lord Ellenborough, in the case of *Chamberlayne v. Broomfield*, at Nisi Prius in 1812.

denied that the crime of adultery is very different in a wife, who by her infidelity may impose a spurious issue upon her husband, it is equally certain that the protection of his rights, as regards spurious progeny, ought not to be regarded as the only object of divorce; and that misconduct of an outrageous nature, such as gross cruelty, living in open adultery with another woman, refusal to cohabit, or such incidents generally as entirely frustrate the very objects of the matrimonial union, ought either to be made severely punishable, or to be allowed as grounds of divorce to be obtained by the wife. Nor is it any answer, to allege the risk of collusion between the parties for the purpose of obtaining a divorce. That collusion must always be a possible risk; and it is, no doubt, frequent in divorce bills under the existing practice. The legislature, or the tribunals which have cognisance of the question, must provide the best checks they can for preventing it; all systems being supposed to agree in this, that no dissolution of the nuptial union should be allowed upon the mere agreement of the parties to terminate their connection.

But this first objection, of inequality in admitting the remedy by bill, might be removed, it may be said, by a more equitable principle being adopted in Parliament. The second objection is not so easily removed; it is, as at present constituted, a remedy confined to the wealthy, who can alone afford what cannot cost less than six or seven hundred pounds, including the proceedings in the courts. This of itself is an unanswerable argument against such divorce bills. No man in moderate circumstances ever can afford to obtain one.

A third objection is derived from the nature of the tribunal. None can be worse constituted for the purpose; none more liable to abuse. Accordingly, although the peers generally interfere very little with the judicial business of the House, and thus convert what would be, according to the letter of the constitution, one of the most absurdly framed judicatures in the world, into one which, if not exceeding good, yet practically works tolerably well, their lordships do not exercise the same abstinence upon divorce bills; and it is not many years since an attempt was made to show favour towards the family of an individual connected with many peers, by passing a divorce bill, contrary to all precedent and practice at the suit of his wife. Upon a division, the attempt was frustrated by a very narrow majority, in a House much more full than is ever found to assist at judicial proceedings. The remedy proposed for this some time ago, was to transfer the whole matter of divorce bills to a court of justice, and the judicial committee of the privy council was suggested as the appropriate tribunal. The proposition, being favourably received by the House of Lords, the "Conservative Senate" of this country, would in all probability have been adopted by the legislature had its authors pressed it; and the success which has attended the discretion of extending patents, more recently conferred upon that useful court, may operate as an additional inducement to enlarge its jurisdiction in this direction. It is certain that no inquiry can be more appropriate for a court, or less adapted to a chamber of Parliament, than that of the facts which should entitle parties to a divorce.

The subject of the Marriage Law and the conflict between the laws of the two parts of this island has been treated at large in the preceding discourse. The following speech was delivered in explanation of the bill introduced into the House of Lords in September, 1835, and which was suffered to stand over in order that so momentous a subject might receive the most ample consideration; both from the country at large and among the members of the legal profession. It is deeply to be regretted that the attention of the judges who have had most experience in this department of our jurisprudence should never have been effectually directed towards its amendment. Lord Eldon's habits of doubt, and his marked disinclination to all changes in the law, prevented him from applying the resources of his extraordinary learning and distinguished ability to the question. He only introduced, but without any remarks, a bill propounded by Lord Lauderdale, who had long directed his attention to the subject, and who is certainly, both from his great talents and the long experience which he has had of legal discussions, well entitled to be consulted as an authority upon it. But no one was so fitted to grapple with all the difficulties of the question as Sir William Scott, whose life had been passed in the consistorial courts, who had, by the accident of the leading case upon the Scotch

marriage law coming before him,* discussed the whole subject, and who, although an English judge, and deciding upon a question of foreign law as a question of fact merely, had yet pronounced a judgment, ever since admitted to settle the Scotch law upon its just foundations, and to end all the disputes which had previously divided Scotch lawyers themselves.

There has seldom if ever appeared in the profession of the law any one so peculiarly endowed with all the learning and capacity which can accomplish, as well as all the graces which can embellish the judicial character, as this eminent person. Confining himself to the comparatively narrow and sequestered walks of the consistorial tribunals, he had early been withdrawn from the contentions of the forum, had lost the readiness with which his great natural acuteness must have furnished him, and had never acquired the habits which forensic strife is found to form—the preternatural power of suddenly producing all the mind's resources at the call of the moment, and shifting their application nimbly from point to point, as that exigency varies in its purpose or its direction. But so had he also escaped the hardness, not to say the coarseness, which is inseparable from such rough and constant use of the faculties, and which, while it sharpens their edge and their point, not seldom contaminates the taste, and withdraws the mind from all pure, and generous, and classical intercourse, to matters of a vulgar and a technical order. His judgment was of the highest cast; calm, firm, enlarged, penetrating, profound. His powers of reasoning were in proportion great, and still more refined than extensive, though singularly free from anything like versatility, and liable to be easily disturbed in their application to every day use. If the retired and almost solitary habits of the comparatively secluded walk in which he moved, had given him little relish for the strenuous and vehement warfare of rapid argumentation and the logic of unprepared debate, his vast superiority was apparent when, as from an eminence, he was called to survey the whole field of dispute, and to marshal the variegated facts, disentangle the intricate mazes, and array the conflicting reasons which were calculated to distract and suspend men's judgment. If ever the praise of being luminous could be justly bestowed upon human compositions, it was upon his judgments, and it was the approbation constantly, and as it were peculiarly, appropriated to those wonderful exhibitions of judicial capacity.

His learning, extensive and profound in all professional matters, was by no means confined within that range. He was amply and accurately endowed with a knowledge of all history of all times; richly provided with the literary and the personal portion of historical lore; largely furnished with stores of the more curious and recondite knowledge, which judicious students of antiquity, and judicious students only, are found to amass; and he possessed a rare facility of introducing such matters felicitously for the illustration of an argument or a topic, whether in debate or in more familiar conversation. But he was above the pedantry which disdains the gratification of a more ordinary and every day curiosity. No one had more knowledge of the common affairs of life, and it was at all times a current observation, that the person who first saw any sight exhibited in London, be it production of nature, or of art, or of artifice (for he would condescend to see even the juggler play his tricks), was Sir William Scott—who could always steal for such relaxations an hour from settling the gravest questions that could be raised on the rights of nations, or the ecclesiastical law of the land. Above all, he was a person of great classical attainments, which he had pursued and, indeed, improved from the earlier years of his life, when he was a college tutor of distinguished reputation; and from hence, as well as from the natural refinement and fastidiousness of his mind, he derived the pure taste which presided over all his efforts, chastening his judicial compositions and adorning his exquisite conversation. Of diction, indeed, he was among the greatest masters, in all but its highest department of energetic declamation and fervent imagery. “*Quid multa? Istum audiens equidem sic judicare soleo, quidquid aut addideris, aut mutaveris, aut detraxeris, vitiosius et deterius futurum.*”†

To give samples of his happy command of language would be an easy thing, but it would almost be to cite the bulk of his judgments. “Having thus furnished the rule which must govern our decision,” said he, in the famous case already

* *Dalrymple v. Dalrymple*.

† *Cic. de Orat. lib. iii.*

referred to,* "the English law retires, and makes way for the Scottish, whose principles must finally dispose of the case." Quoting the words of Puffendorff (and it may be observed in passing, misquoting them for the purpose of his argument, and omitting the part which answered it), who, after stating an opinion subtly and sophistically held by some, adds, "Tu noli sic sapere," Sir William Scott at once gives it thus, in the happiest, the most literal, and yet the most idiomatic English—"Be not you wise in such conceits as these."

To illustrate by examples his singularly refined and pungent wit in conversation, or the happy and unexpected quotations with which he embellished it, or the tersely told anecdotes with which he enlivened it, without for an instant fatiguing his audience, would be far less easy,—because it is of the nature of the refined essence in which the spirit of the best society consists, not to keep. When some sudden and somewhat violent changes of opinion were imputed to a learned judge, who was always jocosely termed Mrs. —, "Varium et mutabile semper Femina," was Sir William Scott's remark. A celebrated physician having said, somewhat more flippantly than beseemed the gravity of his cloth, "Oh, you know, Sir William, after forty a man is always either a fool or a physician!" "Mayn't he be both, Doctor?" was the arch rejoinder,—with a most arch leer and insinuating voice half drawled out. "A vicar was once" (said his lordship,† presiding at the dinner of the Admiralty Sessions), "so wearied out with his parish-clerk confining himself entirely to the 100th Psalm, that he remonstrated, and insisted upon a variety, which the man promised; but, old habit proving too strong for him, the old words were as usual given out next Sunday, 'All people that on earth do dwell.' Upon this the vicar's temper could hold out no longer, and, jutting his head over the desk, he cried, 'Damn all people that on earth do dwell!'—a very compendious form of anathema!" added the learned chief of the spiritual court.

This eminent personage was in his opinions extremely narrow and confined; never seeming to have advanced beyond the times "before the flood" of light which the American War and the French Revolution had let in upon the world—times when he was a tutor in Oxford, and hoped to live and die in the unbroken quiet of her bowers, enjoying their shade variegated with no glare of importunate illumination. Of every change he was the enemy; of all improvement careless and even distrustful; of the least deviation from the most beaten track suspicious; of the remotest risks an acute prognosticator as by some natural instinct; of the slightest actual danger a terror-stricken spectator. As he could imagine nothing better than the existing state of any given thing, he could see only peril and hazard in the search for anything new; and with him it was quite enough to characterize a measure as "a mere novelty," to deter him at once from entertaining it—a phrase of which Mr. Speaker Abbot, with some humour, once took advantage to say, when asked by his friend what that mass of papers might be, pointing to the huge bundle of the acts of a single session,—"*Mere novelties, Sir William—mere novelties.*" And, in truth, all the while that this class of politicians are declaiming and alarming mankind against every attempt to improve our laws, made judiciously and safely, because upon principle, and systematically, and with circumspection, they are unhesitatingly passing by wholesale, and without any reflection at all, the most startling acts for widely affecting the laws, the institutions, and the interests of the country. It is deeply to be lamented that one endowed with such rare qualifications for working in the amendment of the consistorial law, should have grown old in the fetters of such a school as this. His peculiar habits of reasoning—his vast and various knowledge—his uniting with the habits of a judge, and the authority due to so distinguished a member of the clerical courts, all the erudition and polish of a finished scholar, and all the knowledge of the world and habits of society which are the least to be expected in such dignitaries—finally, his equal knowledge of both the English and Scotch systems—seemed to point him out as the very person at whose hands this great branch of the jurisprudence of both nations might most naturally have expected to receive its most important amendments.

* *Dalrymple v. Dalrymple.*

† Sir W. Scott was, during the latter years of his long-extended life, created a peer by the title of Lord Stowell; but it is by his former name that he is known to the profession and to the world.

S P E E C H

ON THE

SCOTCH MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE BILL.

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

SEPTEMBER 3, 1835.

MY LORDS,—I have now to present the bill of which I gave notice some months ago, to amend the laws of marriage, legitimacy, and divorce. The circumstances which I then stated have occasioned the lapse of this long interval. A cause of great importance* was pending, and, until judgment should be given in it, there was a manifest inconvenience, to say the least, in proceeding to legislate upon the subject; for, although no measure which was likely to be entertained by your lordships could have had a retrospective operation upon the decision of that question, yet any discussion of the subject among those, in their legislative capacity, who were, in the exercise of their judicial functions, to pronounce upon the appeal I am alluding to, appeared objectionable. The delay of the judgment has not been owing either to myself, or to my noble and learned friend;† and, indeed, I do not blame any one for it, as the great importance of the subject justified the fullest deliberation. The case was disposed of yesterday, and I have now to present the bill which will, if passed into a law, apply, as I think, the appropriate remedy to the evils arising from the present state of this branch of our jurisprudence. It is only to be lamented that the period of the session renders it impossible to proceed further than reading the bill a first time, printing it, and letting it undergo a full discussion during the vacation. My duty at present is to state shortly the principles upon which the measure is framed.

Your lordships are well aware, generally, of the diversities which mark the English and Scotch laws relating to marriage and divorce, and of the mischievous consequences which result from those diver-

* Warrender v. Warrender.

† Lord Lyndhurst.

sities. By the law of England no marriage is valid which is not solemnized according to the provisions of the marriage act. By the Scotch law, any parties of the legal age—that is, fourteen and twelve respectively—may contract a valid marriage by declaring their consent *per verba de presenti*, or by promising to intermarry, and then cohabiting; and such present consent, or promise with subsequent cohabitation, being proved by any evidence legally admissible to substantiate the truth of facts alleged, must be allowed by all courts as conclusive of the matrimonial contract having been completed. This state of the law has often been lamented by those who considered it as mischievous in tendency and grossly inconsistent, that the same party who, until he attains twenty-one, is incapable of affecting in any manner the most inconsiderable portion of his landed property, or binding himself in almost any way, should be suffered, by an improvident marriage hastily contracted, to incur the most important of all obligations, and to bestow upon his issue by a designing, and possibly a profligate, woman, the inheritance of the highest honours and the most ample possessions. But with this question we have, at present, nothing to do. Upon the Scotch law I do not ask your lordships to make any change. Whether or not it may be founded upon sound principles I do not at all inquire. Nor do I stop to examine the consequences which may have flowed from it, further than to observe, that a law may be adapted to one kind of society, which in another would be mischievous; while, on the other hand, the manners of a community may have become adapted to the law; so that we should not be justified in condemning the Scotch marriage law merely because it would be wholly inapplicable to this country. The Scotch are exceedingly attached to this branch of their jurisprudence; and I am very far from proposing that it should be altered. But it is quite another thing, to permit the difference that exists in their marriage law to open a door for the evasion of ours. Whoever holds that the English law upon this subject is right for England, and the Scotch law right for Scotland, must admit that nothing can be more absurd than permitting the one law to be made the means of committing frauds upon the other,—permitting, in truth, the provisions of the one system to make those of the other a nullity:—and even he who regards the English law as bad for England, must desire that it should be altered by the legislature, so as to be amended for the benefit of all the people, instead of being allowed to bind only those who reside in certain parts of the country, and who cannot afford the expense of evading it. Only see how the matter at present stands. A minor cannot marry in England without the consent of his parent or guardian, or giving what is considered sufficient notice to them, by the publication of banns; but, as this is not the law of Scotland, he has only to go there, and he can be married the instant he crosses the border. Now suppose, for argument's sake, that the English law were ever so bad, this is anything rather than the right way of changing it; for, not to mention other obvious arguments, such evasion of its provisions can be easily made by any persons whatever who live near the border, but can only be

made by persons in easy circumstances who happen to live at a distance from Scotland. I would, however, by no means be understood as doubting that the fundamental principle of the English law is a sound one, whatever may be said of the means by which that principle is carried into effect. Some control upon the improvident marriages of boys and girls, I hold to be essential to the well-being of society, at least in England. This control, which our law intends to maintain, fails in consequence of the Scotch law not giving a like control; and it fails in the very cases where it is most wanted,—in the cases where wealth and weakness on the one hand, and needy rapacity on the other, are most likely to produce the apprehended mischief.

The first branch of the measure which I have now to propose is directed to remedy this great evil. Ever since the celebrated cases of *Crompton v. Bearcroft* before the delegates, and *Ilderton v. Ilderton* in the Common Pleas, the English courts have, contrary to Lord Mansfield's opinion, recognized the validity of marriages contracted in Scotland, by English parties going thither for a momentary residence, and with the express purpose of escaping the provisions of the English law. This I do not propose to alter or in any way to touch; but I wish to put those who fly to Scotland with such a view, and also their parents and guardians, as nearly as may be, in the same situation in which they would have been had they remained in England. This may, I think, be best effected by requiring that they should reside for a certain time in Scotland before they can contract a valid marriage. The publication of banns takes a fortnight at the least, and I should fix upon three weeks as the time of residence, in order to afford sufficient opportunity of pursuit and search. Your lordships will observe that this will give a better notice, in some respects, than the banns, for the flight will be at once known: whereas the banns may be published in a parish remote from the residence of the parent or guardian, and the publication may be made where so many banns are published that no one knows of it. I should set this off against the difficulty of finding the exact route which the parties have taken. So that, upon the whole, the provisions which I propose may be considered as placing the parties to a runaway marriage upon nearly the same footing on which they would be were they to remain in their own country.

The first provision of the bill, then, is, that no marriage contracted in Scotland shall be valid either in Scotland or England, unless both parties are Scotch by birth, or are domiciled in Scotland; that is, usually reside there, or live in Scotland for three weeks next preceding the marriage; so that the law will remain precisely as it now stands with respect to all marriages really and *bonâ fide* Scotch, and will only be changed so as to prevent English parties from going to Scotland in order to commit a fraudulent evasion of the English law. No Scotch person whatever will be affected by the change, nor any person, whether Scotch or not, residing in Scotland, nor even any person whether Scotch or not, residing temporarily in Scotland. They only will be affected who go thither with the purpose of violating the

laws of their own country; and even to them the old Scotch law of marriage will be applicable, after a residence of three weeks.

Upon the same general principle of preserving the Scotch law as to *bonâ fide* proceedings, and only altering it so as to prevent it from being made subservient to fraudulent evasions of the English law, the second branch of the measure which I am proposing is framed. The law differs in the two countries, as your lordships are well aware, even more widely respecting divorce than respecting marriage. With us the contract is indissoluble; by no proceeding in any of our courts can divorce *à vinculo matrimonii* be decreed; the sentences of nullity in England are merely declaratory, and proceed upon the ground that there never was a valid marriage contracted. Thus the ecclesiastical court pronounces that a marriage is null on account of anything that made it unlawful for the parties to marry; but if they were lawfully married, adultery, or desertion, or anything else supervening, is no ground whatever for dissolving the marriage; the only proceeding known to our law, in such cases, being divorce *a mensâ et thoro*, that is, separation from bed and board: hence a new law must, in each case, be made to divorce parties on the ground of adultery. In Scotland such divorces are part of the law, and are decreed by the ordinary proceedings of the courts—formerly of the commissary or consistorial court, now of the court of session—to which the jurisdiction has, an excellent measure of the noble duke's government,* been transferred. Hence has arisen the practice of parties resorting to Scotland with a view to the dissolution of the marriage which in England they could not dissolve; like the practice of going there with a view to the celebration of marriages which in England they could not contract.

Without entering further into the argument, but only referring to the principles which I have already stated touching marriage, and which are equally applicable to divorce, I propose to frame upon those principles a provision similar to the one for preventing frauds upon the marriage act, in order, also, to prevent frauds upon the law of divorce. This is more necessary than even the former branch of the bill, because there is a direct conflict between the laws of the two countries respecting divorce, which exists not between their marriage laws. Parties going to be married in Scotland, who could not marry here without consent, contract a marriage valid in England, as well as in Scotland. Parties going to be divorced in Scotland, are recognised by the Scotch law, as single persons, and may validly marry again in that country; but in England they are held by the decisions of our courts—(not, indeed, ever yet affirmed in this House)—to be still married. There has never been a judgment of your lordships upon the general question; nor has it ever been determined, in any court, that an English marriage having been dissolved in Scotland, and the parties contracting other marriages in Scotland, those marriages are void in England, although it was decided by all the judges,

* Duke of Wellington.

in Lolly's case, that a subsequent marriage, in England, was void, and the party contracting it guilty of felony. The conflict between the two laws on this point, affecting, as it must, questions of legitimacy, is productive of the most serious evils; and the provision which I am now explaining to your lordships will entirely put an end to it, without invading the Scotch law in its application to the cases of *bond fide* Scotch divorces. Here again, as in the case of marriage, that law may be well adapted to the manners of the people, or the manners of the people may have become adapted to the law. To our manners it would be wholly repugnant, and therefore we ought not to let the Scotch law afford the means of evading in this particular, any more than in the case of marriage, the provisions of our own.

The second branch of the bill therefore provides that no sentence of the Scotch court shall dissolve any marriage not contracted in Scotland, unless the husband be a Scotchman, or usually residing in Scotland; or unless both husband and wife shall have resided in Scotland for a year next preceding the commencement of the suit instituted to obtain the divorce. This alteration, like the former, will affect no Scotch person, nor any other person, whether Scotch or not, residing generally in Scotland, nor even any person, whether Scotch or not, who resides temporarily in Scotland. It will only affect those who go to Scotland with the purpose of escaping from the laws of their own country, and even they will receive the protection of the old Scotch law of divorce, after a year's residence. There may be some doubt whether or not a longer period ought to be fixed for the purpose of more effectually restraining parties from visiting Scotland in order to obtain a divorce. I incline to think, upon the whole, that a year is the proper time; for we must take care that, while we interpose obstacles to parties acquiring a temporary domicile with a fraudulent design, we do not obstruct the remedy which the Scotch law should, according to its established principles, provide in all cases of *bond fide* residence. As that law now stands, forty days gives a domicile sufficient to confer jurisdiction of divorce on the court, and this period is found quite inadequate to prevent the evasion. I apprehend that a year may prove sufficient; but this may be the subject of further consideration. So may the part of the provision which extends to all marriages, those contracted as well in foreign countries as in England. I strongly incline to make the law general, but I do not state that my mind is wholly made up upon this point.

The legitimacy of children—the subject of the third branch of the measure—depends upon the validity of the marriage of their parents, or upon the relation of their birth to that marriage. As the law now stands, owing to the conflict which I have already mentioned, a child might be held legitimate in Scotland and bastard in England, if he were the issue of a marriage contracted in England by a party divorced in Scotland from the ties of a prior English marriage. This has never been decided, but the Scotch courts have questioned Lolly's case in its application to Scotland; and they might hold the issue of such a marriage entitled to be deemed legitimate in Scotland. I do not say they

would so hold, nor do I say that they would in so holding be right. But of this I am quite clear—that they would hold the issue of such a second marriage legitimate in Scotland, if it were contracted in Scotland; and I am equally clear that they would be in the right. Now, in England, it may be that such issue would be held bastard; because, though the question has never arisen, I rather think the opinion of lawyers inclines that way. This, however, cannot be stated as certain; the subject is full of difficulty, and the doubts in very high quarters make it impossible to say how the decision would be. On such a momentous subject as the validity of existing marriages, and the legitimacy of children, whether born or to be born, no doubt should be suffered to remain. This conflict, or this doubt, which makes a person legitimate in the one country, and bastard, or of doubtful legitimacy, in the other, is full of evil consequences; and it will be completely prevented for the future by the second branch of the bill, as I have already explained it; for no divorce can be valid in Scotland which will not be valid in England also. But the conflict may still exist as to past divorces, and the validity of the marriage had after such divorces is still doubtful; therefore I propose, after the example of the marriage act of 1822, and the marriage act of my noble friend* of this session, to provide, by a clause declaratory as well as enacting, that all marriages and all divorces in Scotland, whether already had, or hereafter to be had, shall be valid also in the other dominions of the Crown.

But there is another conflict between the laws of the two countries, which remains to be provided for. By the Scotch law, marriage subsequent to the birth of a child makes it legitimate, provided the parents could have intermarried prior to the birth. This principle of the civil law, as your lordships are aware, was propounded by the prelates to the barons at the Parliament of Merton, and they refused to change the law of England, in the words so often quoted,—and not seldom, give me leave to say, with a view to prevent many a rational improvement. The consequence is, that the child born in England before marriage is certainly illegitimate; and it is possible that the ante-nuptial child born in Scotland may be held illegitimate in questions touching English rights. This has never been so decided generally; but in the case now under the consideration of your lordships, by writ of error, the judges have held, that such a child is bastard in England, when he claims a real estate; while the same child has been held legitimate in Scotland, and has taken Scotch real estates as heir to his father. I think it quite clear that such a conflict must be put an end to at once, and that all children hereafter to be born in Scotland, who shall be legitimate by the Scotch law, should be held to be so in other parts of the King's dominions. The bill is here, as in the last portion which I have explained, made declaratory as well as enactive, the law being still doubtful on this part; and it is also made retrospective as regards children born; but I by no means think that it should be retrospective as regards pending suits; and a clause will hereafter be introduced to

* Lyndhurst.

save these. The case before your lordships may possibly be disposed of this session; if not, it will of course, be exempted, with many others which may have been commenced before the time of the act taking effect.

It remains for me to state, that a provision of considerable importance is introduced into this measure, with the view of facilitating the proof of Scotch marriages, and preventing doubts as to the requisite period of residence having elapsed before the contract. The sheriff of the county in which any marriage shall be contracted (he being, as your lordships know, the judge ordinary of the district,) is authorized to certify, after having duly satisfied himself, that the parties are married, and did reside in Scotland during the time required by law; and his certificate being entered by the sheriff-clerk in a book to be kept for the purpose, an office copy of such entry is made conclusive evidence of the validity of the marriage in all courts within the dominions of the Crown. I am quite aware that, in Scotland, the state of the registry—if, indeed, there can be said to exist any registry—is such as will give a great advantage to those who have their marriages recorded by the sheriff. I am also aware of other objections to this provision, such as its enabling any persons to prove their marriage before the sheriff whether they have had only a temporary residence or not. But these and other observations which arise upon this part of the bill, may be discussed hereafter, and they do not seem to supersede the necessity of some such provision as the one which I have just explained. It is, therefore, now inserted, and may be taken into consideration with the rest of the measure.

I earnestly solicit the attention of your lordships to this important matter; and I trust I shall be favoured, also, with the suggestions of those out of doors who take an interest in the question, more particularly the members of the legal profession. The difficulty of the subject is not much inferior to its importance, and I can by no means feel confident that I have succeeded in finding the course which ought to be taken with the view of obviating the evils of existing law, and yet making the least possible change in the system of Scottish jurisprudence. The present bill is intended to alter that system in no one particular of what may be termed its deliberate and intentional provisions, but only to prevent a door from being opened, which never could have been contemplated, for evading the enactments of the English law.

S P E E C H

ON

MOVING THE SECOND READING OF THE BILL TO AMEND

T H E P O O R L A W S .

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

JULY 21, 1834.

My Lords,—I approach a subject of paramount importance and of vast magnitude—and one of which the difficulty in principle, and the complexity in detail, are, at the least, on a level with its importance. And I have not now, as oftentimes has been my lot in this House, the satisfaction of knowing that the subject of this bill has gained the same favour among the people of this country at large, as in the case of other reforms, whether political or legal, which I have propounded to your lordships. They are, generally speaking, more indifferent to the subject than their own near interest in it, and intimate connection with its evils, might make it both probable and desirable that they should be. I am sensible that they do not buoy up with their loud approbation those who patronize the great measure to which I am about to solicit your attention; and though they have manfully and rationally resisted all the attempts that have been made to pervert their judgments, and lead them to join in a clamour adverse to the plan, yet are they, in a great degree, indifferent to its extent, and to its interests. I am quite aware that they are not against it—nay, that the obloquy which is in store for those who support it, will proceed from but a very small portion of the community. But, my lords, if this proportion were reversed—if there were as much clamour against this measure as some individuals would fain excite—individuals of great ability, of much knowledge, and I will add, well-earned influence over public opinion on political matters, but more especially on ephemeral topics, or questions which arise from day to day, and as speedily sink into oblivion—individuals acting, from good motives I doubt not, from feelings wrongly excited, and taking a false direction, though in their origin

not discreditable to those who cherish them—if those efforts had been as successful as they have manifestly, notoriously, and most honourably to the good sense of the people of England, failed utterly in raising almost any obloquy at all—I should have stood up in my place this day, propounded this measure, and urged in its behalf the self-same arguments which I am now about to address to the calm deliberate judgment of this House, perverted by no false feeling, biassed by no sinister views of self-interest, and interrupted by no kind of clamour from without; and I now address those arguments as I then should have done to the people out of this House, with this only difference, that the same arguments would have been urged, the same legislative provisions propounded, and the same topics addressed to a less calm, less rational, and less deliberative people, than I shall now have the satisfaction of appealing to. My lords, I should have been unworthy of the task that has been committed to my hands, if by any deference to clamour I could have been made to swerve from the faithful discharge of this duty. The subject is infinitely too important, the subjects which it involves are far too mighty, and the duty, correlative to the importance of those interests, which the government I belong to has to discharge, is of too lofty, too sacred a nature, to make it possible for any one who aspires to the name of a statesman, or who has taken upon himself to counsel his sovereign upon the arduous concerns of his realms, to let the dictates of clamour find any access to his breast, and make him sacrifice his principles to a covetousness of popular applause. I fully believe that they will best recommend themselves, as, even from the first outset, to the rational part of their reflecting fellow-countrymen, so in the end to the whole community, including such as at first may be less able to exercise their judgment calmly upon the merits of the question—they will best recommend themselves to the unanimous approval, and to the late though sure gratitude of the country at large, who shall manfully carry through, with the aid of your lordships, a system of provisions which, in my conscience, I believe to be the most efficacious, the least objectionable in point of principle, to sin the least against any known rule of polity or the constitution, and at the same time to afford the nearest and surest prospect of any that ever yet has been devised for terminating evils, the extent of which, at the present moment, no tongue can adequately describe, the possible extent of whose consequences not very remote, no fancy can adequately picture—evils which bad laws, worse executed—which the lawgiver, outstripped in his pernicious course by the administrators, have entailed upon this country—which, while they bid fair to leave nothing of the property of the country that can be held safe, so leave nothing in the industry of the country that can be deemed secure of its due reward—nothing in the character of the country that can claim for it a continuance of the respect which the character of the English peasant always in older times commanded, and which with the loss of that character, the multiplication of miseries, and the increase of every species of crime, has brought about a state of things in which we behold industry stripped of its rights, and the sons of idleness, vice, and

profligacy, usurping its lawful place—property no longer safer than industry—and—I will not say an agrarian law, for that implies only a division of property, but—the destruction of all property—as the issue of the system that stares us, and at no great distance, in the face; a state of things, in fine, such, that peace itself has returned without its companion plenty, and in the midst of profound external tranquillity, and the most exuberant blessings of the seasons ever showered down by Providence, the labourer rebels, disturbances prevail in districts never before visited by discontent, and everything betokens the approach of what has been termed an agrarian war. Such is the state to which matters are now come, and such are the results of that pernicious system which you are now called upon to remedy by the great measure to a certain degree matured—at all events, much prepared—for your deliberations, by the other House of Parliament, and now tendered for your approbation.

My lords, there is one thing of unspeakable importance, and which gives me the greatest consolation. I feel an intimate persuasion that we are now no longer involved in a political, factions, or even in the milder sense of the word, party discussion; but that we are met together as if we were members of one association, having no conflicting feelings to divide its measures, no knots of men banded one against the other, and where no private feeling will be suffered to interfere. This is an encouragement to me personally, and it argues most auspiciously for the cause. I may assume that almost all of you have a sufficient knowledge of the existing poor laws; many from experience of their operation, others from the exposition of them in the statute book, and others from having refreshed their recollection by the very able report of the commissioners; I may, therefore, take for granted that it would be wholly superfluous to enter into any description of the mechanism of the present system. But I should wish, before I state the kind of mischief that the mal-administration of the poor law has produced, shortly to glance at what is material—not as a matter of curiosity merely, but as enabling us more clearly to trace the origin of the mischief—I mean the origin of the poor law itself, and the steps by which its administration has become so pernicious.

It is certainly not quite correct to say, as has frequently been asserted, that these laws grew out of the destruction of the monastic orders, and the seizure of their property by Henry VIII; but it is still more incorrect to deny that there was any connection whatever between the two events; for undoubtedly, though the passing of the 43d of Elizabeth followed the seizure of monastery lands, by an interval of above sixty years, yet it is equally true that it was not twenty years after the abolition of those monasteries that the first poor law, the earliest compulsory provision for the poor, was enacted; being the 5th of Elizabeth. When I make this observation, I must add another connected with it, and remind your lordships of an argument used against the church establishment, and the tithes system, as connected with the poor laws. It is said that, according to the original division of tithes, one-fourth belonged to the bishop, one-fourth to the parson,

one-fourth to the repair of the church, and the remaining one-fourth to the poor. That is a mistake which Selden and others have fallen into, from not having examined with care the provisions of the Saxon law, according to which it was a tripartite, and not a quadripartite division;—one-third going to the fabric of the church, one-third to the parson, and one-third to the poor. I grant that this was the original distribution of the tithe, and I also admit that in much later times, as far down as the 15th of Richard II, this right of the poor was recognised by Parliament; for in that year an act passed which in terms admitted the right of the poor to sustentation out of this fund. I admit, too, that still later, in the reign of Elizabeth, the judges of the land recognised the same right, and that other cases are to be found decidedly in favour of this principle, one of the judges of that day quaintly observing, that it is the business of the parson, *Pascere gregem, verbo, exemplo, cibo*. Indeed, your lordships will find both the courts and Parliament, as late as the reign of George III, recognising the claims of the poor against the parson, grounded upon the same principle. It is, however, past all doubt, that a provision for the poor out of the tithe never was distinctly and practically established as their right, beyond their claims to receive charity at the hands of the parson, or other owner of the property; and it is equally past all doubt that they are most superficial reasoners on the subject, who maintain that the restoration to the poor of their share in the tithe, would, if it were possible, at once settle the question, and extinguish the miseries entailed by the poor laws. For most certain it is, that anything more mischievous, anything more fatal to the country, anything more calculated to multiply, indefinitely, the numbers of the poor, cannot be conceived than the applying to them any regular and fixed provision, be it tithe or be it tax, which they can claim at the hands of the rich, except by the force of that duty of imperfect obligation—private charity, which is imposed upon all men. Every permanent fund set apart for their support, from whomsoever proceeding, and by whomsoever administered, must needs multiply the evils it is destined to remedy. This right to share in a fixed fund is the grand mischief of the poor laws, with the seeds of which they were originally pregnant, though certainly many years elapsed after the principal statute—that of the 43d of Elizabeth—was made, before any great amount of positive evil can be said to have rendered itself perceptible in the community at large. As long as it was supposed that the law attached only to the impotent, to those who came within the description of old age, worn-out faculties, in body and mind, or persons disabled by any accidental cause, and not to able-bodied persons—so long, it must be admitted that, if the law was not an advantage, at all events it proved to be no detriment whatever. But by the construction not unnaturally put upon these unfortunate words in the act, requiring the overseer “to take order for setting the poor to work”—a construction which, at the same time, conveyed to the pauper the right of calling into action this power, in other words, of compelling the parish “to find work for the pauper, and if work could not be found, to feed him,”

all self-reliance, all provident habits, all independent feelings, were at an end; and consequences the most pernicious speedily followed to the community, as well as to the poor themselves—consequences more pernicious, I will venture to say, than ever flowed from the enactment or from the construction of any other human law. I blame not those who imposed this construction. It is, for anything I know, a sound one; the clause must have some meaning, and this seems very likely to be the true one; for if the pauper is clothed with a right to have work found him, as the overseer cannot create work, it seems to follow that he must feed those whom he cannot employ. But, pernicious as these inevitable consequences were, worse were sure to follow in the shape of new laws, grounded on the same principle, and developing more noxiously its evil effects. Accordingly, in the year 1796, that act was passed which gave the poor—those that were called the industrious poor—a right, by law, to be supported out of the parish rates, at their own dwellings, and to receive that support, although the parish should have actually contracted and paid for their maintenance in a workhouse hired and established according to the provisions of the act, for their reception in the day of their distress.

My lords, it has been usual to blame the magistrates of the country for the mal-administration of these laws. I am not one of those who ever have been able to perceive the justice of this charge. I have never felt that we had any right to hold them peculiarly responsible, or, indeed, in the midst of universal error, to tell who were answerable for the mischief we all acknowledged to exist. The worst that can be said of those respectable persons, to whom the country is so greatly indebted, and of whose services I should speak more at large if I had not the honour of addressing an assembly almost wholly composed of magistrates, is, that in bringing forth by the administration of the poor laws, the grievous mischiefs inherent originally in the system, they were not before the age they lived in; that they were not wiser than all who had gone before them, and all who lived around them, and, indeed, all who, for one or two generations, have come after them. This is the only charge that can be justly made against them. It would be condemning them for a want of more than human sagacity, were we to charge them with the consequences of their conduct, pursuing, as they did, the opinions of the most learned jurists and most experienced statesmen, while occupied with the details of the system which they were engaged in working. The truth is, that in all they did, magistrates have had the countenance of the first authorities in the country; they have had the entire approval and even concurrence of the legislature to support them; they have had the decisions of the judges to back, and even to guide them. As often as questions have been raised relative to the administration of these laws, the courts have never, in any one instance, applied themselves to lessen the mischief, by narrowing the liberal construction which the magistrates had put upon the statutes, but have uniformly decided, so as to give them yet larger scope. That they have erred, then, in such company as the legislative and judicial powers of the country, is

to be regarded with neither wonder nor blame. But the magistrates have had equal countenance from the names of eminent individuals, some of them the most distinguished that this land can boast of, and who, upon the question of relief to the poor, have entertained projects more liberal, nay, I will say more extravagant—more absolutely wild, than any that the most liberal magistrates of this country ever contemplated. What think you, my lords, I will not say of Mr. Gilbert's act, but of the measure proposed in 1795 by Mr. Pitt—a man thoroughly versed in all the details of the subject, and well acquainted, as might have been supposed, with the best practical policy to be pursued regarding it? What marvel is it to find country justices holding that the poor man has a right to be made comfortable in his own dwelling, when Mr. Pitt introduced a bill (happily it did not pass into a law) for legalizing the allowance system, that greatest bane of the administration of the poor laws, and for sanctioning the principle that every poor man has a right to be made comfortable in his own dwelling—himself and his family, and to be furnished “with a cow, or a pig, or some other animal yielding profit.” (I cite the words of the act) to be provided in proportion to the number of his children? Assuredly the author of this famous project was not much more in advance of his age than the justices of the peace. Such principles as Mr. Pitt thus plainly held on the subject, have been the cause of the ruin we now all deplore. Surely if ever there was a doctrine more frantic in principle than another, or less likely to prove safe in its appliances, it must be this—that in defiance of the ordinary law of nature, the human lawgiver should decree, that all poor men have a right to live comfortably, assuming to himself the power of making every one happy, at all times—in seasons of general weal or woe, and proclaiming with the solemnity of a statute, “Henceforth let human misery cease, and every man, woman, and child, be at ease in the kingdom of England, and dominion of Wales, and town of Berwick-upon-Tweed.” But it is fair to Mr. Pitt to recollect that these absurd doctrines were not entertained by him alone—he shared them with many of his contemporaries.

Secure, however, from these errors, let us now see what the true principle was all the while, and whether or not the poor laws, as at present administered, sin against that principle or obey it. First of all, I am aware that I may be charged with stating an identical proposition when I state to your lordships the fundamental rule which ought to regulate both the legislature and those whom it intrusts with the administration of the poor laws, namely, that men should be paid according to the work they do—that men should be employed and paid according to the demand for their labour, and its value to the employer—that they who toil should not live worse than those who are idle, and that the mere idler should not run away with that portion which the industrious workman has earned. All this appears about as self-evident as if a man were to say two and two make four, and not fourteen. Nevertheless this is the very principle—identical as it is—truism, idle truism, as it may well be called—useless and superfluous as the

uttering of it may seem to be, this obvious principle—this self-evident proposition—is that very principle against which the whole administration of the poor laws at present sins. At every instant, by day and by night, during bad weather and during good, in famine and in plenty, in peace and in war, is this principle outraged, advisedly, systematically, unremittingly outraged, without change, or the shadow of turning. But it is said that although no man has a right to food which he does not earn, and though the idler has no right to make his neighbour work for him, still there are times when the rule must bend to necessity, and that persons in sickness or in old age, or in impotence of body or mind, must be supported, lest they perish before our face. And this leads me to the subject of charity, intimately connected with the poor laws; for that the support of the sick, the aged, and the impotent, should be left to private charity, is, in the view of many, the sounder opinion. I incline to think that it is the safer course—that it is better for him who receives—blessing him more, and also him who gives. But into this question I need not now enter, for it is not necessarily involved in the present argument; and I do not object to compulsory provision in such cases as I have mentioned, so it be subject to proper regulation, in order to prevent the abuses it is much exposed to. But I must observe, even upon the subject of individual charity—charity not administered by the state, or through the hands of parish officers—that I hold this doctrine undeniably true. That species of charity is the least safe which affords a constant fund, known by the community to exist for charitable purposes. As long as the existence of such a fund is notorious, whether raised by the compulsory provisions of the law, or owing its origin and support to the warmth of men's charitable feelings, its existence leads, of necessity, to two consequences, pernicious to all parties, to the giver as well as the receiver, to the state as well as to individuals. First, it can hardly avoid being abused from the kindly feelings of those who administer it (and this applies to a parish fund still more strictly, for it is more liable to abuse). The private manager cannot trust his own feelings—the overseer cannot trust his own feelings. Out of this infirmity of our nature, abuses are quite certain to arise. The second consequence is this, and I regard it as the worse evil—if the fund is known to exist, however it be constituted, whether by voluntary or by compulsory subscription, the poor immediately calculate upon it, and become less provident, forsaking every habit of frugality, taking no care to provide against the ordinary calamities of life, or the inevitable infirmities of old age. They no longer strive for the means of maintaining their children, but heedlessly, recklessly, count upon that fund, out of which, whether in sickness or in health, in youth or in age, in impotence or in vigour, they know that they may claim the means of support; and setting the pains of labour against those of a scanty sustenance, they prefer idleness and a bare subsistence to plenty earned by toil. Hence men's minds become habituated to the fatal disconnection of livelihood and labour, and ceasing to rely upon their own honest industry for support, their minds become debased as their habits

are degraded. Were I not afraid of troubling your lordships with a discourse wearing too much of a didactic air, I could easily prove that this is the practical result of the too extensive and unreflecting distribution of charity.

I will, however, trouble your lordships with one remark upon this matter. I am well aware that I am speaking on the unpopular side of the subject; but it is, nevertheless, necessary that the truth should be told. The safest, and perhaps the only perfect charity, is an hospital for accidents or violent diseases, because no man is secure against such calamities—no man can calculate upon, or provide against them; and we may always be sure that the existence of such an hospital will in no way tend to increase the number of patients. Next to this, perhaps, a dispensary is the safest; but I pause upon that if I regard the rigour of the principle, because a dispensary may be liable to abuse, and because, strictly speaking, sickness is a thing which a provident man should look forward to, and provide against, as part of the ordinary ills of life; still I do not go to the rigorous extent of objecting to dispensaries. But when I come to hospitals for old age—as old age is before all men—as every man is every day approaching nearer to that goal—all prudent men of independent spirit will, in the vigour of their days, lay by sufficient to maintain them when age shall end their labour. Hospitals, therefore, for the support of old men and women, may, strictly speaking, be regarded as injurious in their effects upon the community. Nevertheless, their evil tendency may be counterbalanced by the good they do.

But the next species of charity to which I shall refer, is one which sins grievously against all sound principle—I mean hospitals for children, whether endowed by the public, or by the charity of individuals. These, with the exception of orphan hospitals, are mere evils; and the worst of all is a foundling hospital. To show how much we have improved in these matters—how much better informed we have become—how much more enlightened—how much less apt to be carried away by feelings, amiable in themselves, but in their effects mischievous, unless regulated by knowledge and wisdom, I need only mention that what once was reckoned the great ornament of this city—the Foundling Hospital in Guilford Street—is no longer a foundling hospital at all; having, by the rules in force for the last sixty or seventy years, never received one single foundling, properly so called, within its walls. The same improvement was effected by my right honourable friend, the president of the board of control,* with respect to the Foundling Hospital in Dublin, when he filled the office of Secretary for Ireland. Any hospital for the reception of foundlings is the worst of charities: it is no charity—it is a public nuisance, and ought to be stripped of the title of charity, and put down as an outrage on public morals. So all now allow; but fifty years ago no man would have dared to say so. Can we doubt that in much less than half a century more, all those other principles now made the butt of low ignorant

* Mr. Charles Grant (now Lord Glenelg).

abuse, will be the admitted guide and belief of every member of the community?

If such as I have stated be the rules which public safety prescribes for regulating even voluntary charities, only see how the poor laws of this country violate rules a thousand times more applicable to the raising and dispensing of a compulsory provision! They have succeeded in wholly disconnecting the ideas of labour and its reward in the minds of the people—they have encouraged the idle and the profligate, at the expense of the honest and industrious—they have destroyed the independence of the peasant, and made him the creature of a pernicious and forced charity—they have given him the degradation of a beggar, without the consolation with which benevolence soothes the lot of mendicity. Parish allowance is far worse than any dole of private charity, because it is more likely to be abused—because it is more certain in its nature—because it is better known, more established—because it approaches, in the mind of the poor, to the idea of a right. This terrible system has led, amongst other evil consequences, to the act of 1796, which provided for the relief of the poor in their own houses, and was, in fact, the introduction of the allowance scheme—a scheme which provided for the partial payment of wages out of the poor rates, and which, in its operation, has been productive of all the worst mischiefs that might have been expected from such a source. The allowance system had its rise in the scarcity of 1795, and was more widely spread by the subsequent scarcity of 1800 and 1801, since which, in many parts of the kingdom, it has been permanently adopted.

For a compulsory provision to support the poor who are able-bodied, but cannot find, or are not very anxious to find employment, I have known only two excuses ever attempted, and to these it may be fit that I should now very shortly advert. The first is one which I remember hearing strenuously urged by one or two very worthy friends of mine, members of the House of Commons. They maintained that the system kept up the character of the labourers, prevented their becoming the mere beggars of alms, and enabled them to receive their allowance with the erect port and manly aspect of those who felt they were claiming their due under the law. Never, surely, was there a greater delusion. The system has ended in the destruction of all independent character in the English peasant. It is true that he comes to demand his allowance with an erect port, but it is not the bearing of independence; his habits, his feelings, the whole bent of his mind, the whole current of his thoughts are changed. It was deemed aforesaid a shame such as no man could bear, to be dependent upon parochial aid—the name of “pauper” coming next, in the estimation of the peasant, to that of “felon.” It is so no longer—no longer is it thought a scandal upon the labourer to claim relief from the parish—no longer does it inflict a pang upon his mind to darken the overseer’s door. No doubt he comes with a firm gait, with a manly air; but rather let us say, he comes with a sturdy gait and a masterful air. He presumes to domineer over the honest and hard-

working rate-payer, and the servant of the rate-payer—the overseer—whom he insults and tramples upon. Secure in the protection of the law, he demands his allowance not as a man, but as a master; his tone is imperative, for he knows he must be obeyed. Such a system deadens all sense of shame—all sense of real dignity; erases from the mind every feeling of honourable independence, and fits its victims only for acts of outrage or of fraud.

Let us pass, then, to the second topic of defence, and I speak of this argument with great respect, because it proceeds from persons who are the advocates of pure and strict principles in political science, and who are accustomed to carry them to an extravagant excess, sometimes straining them till they crack. These learned persons argue (if I so may speak), that the poor laws afford the only means we have of effectually checking or preventing an increase of population. They say, that whilst there is no possibility of preventing by law improvident marriages amongst the poor (and I admit there is none), the poor laws furnish a preventive check. But are those respectable persons really so short-sighted as not to perceive that whatever little check the poor laws in one view may interpose, is immeasurably counterbalanced by their affording the greatest stimulus to population which the wit of man could devise—the most wilful and direct encouragement that possibly could have been discovered to improvident marriages? I verily think that the history of human errors can produce no parallel to the mistake into which these learned and ingenious persons have fallen. If you had to seek out the most efficacious means of removing every prudential check to population—nay, if you wished to accelerate its march by a wilful, I might almost say a wicked encouragement to heedless and imprudent marriages, and by a premium for numbers of children—you could not devise any more perfect than are afforded by the poor laws, as administered in this country. What is the language they speak to the peasant? “Here is a fund at your command—you have only to marry—only to get children—and here is a fund for the support of yourselves and your children, to be doled out in proportion to their numbers.” The answer of the peasant is in the same language,—“I am a prior mortgagee on the land, and will marry to-morrow, instead of waiting till I have the means of supporting a family.”

These excuses for the system and the mal-administration of the existing poor laws being disposed of, let us now proceed to see what have been the actual results. And upon this part of the subject I shall have to call your lordships’ attention to a most meritorious body of men—the commissioners—and to the result of their invaluable labours—the collection of a mass of evidence, the largest, the most comprehensive, the most important, and the most interesting, that perhaps was ever collected upon any subject. But before I go to that part of the subject—before quitting the subject of population—may I step aside for one moment, and do justice to a most learned, a most able, a most virtuous individual, whose name has been mixed up with more unwitting deception, and also with more wilful misrepresentation, than

that of any man of science in this Protestant country, and in these liberal and enlightened times. When I mention talent, learning, humanity—the strongest sense of public duty, the most amiable feelings in private life, the tenderest and most humane disposition which ever man was adorned with—when I speak of one the ornament of the society in which he moves, the delight of his own family, and not less the admiration of those men of letters and of science amongst whom he shines the first and brightest—when I speak of one of the most enlightened, learned, and pious ministers whom the Church of England ever numbered amongst her sons—I am sure every one will apprehend that I cannot but refer to Mr. Malthus. The character of this estimable man has been foully slandered by some who had the excuse of ignorance, and by others, I fear, without any such palliative, and simply for having made one of the greatest additions to political philosophy which has been effected since that branch of learning has been worthy of the name of a science.

But I was about to call your lordships' attention to the practical working of the system, for the purpose of ascertaining how it is hurtful, and what direction its mischief takes. There has been, in my opinion, no more important event in the recent history of this country than the issuing of the poor law commission. I certainly was one of those who at first thought that the documents already possessed, and especially the evidence which had been collected by both Houses of Parliament, afforded a sufficient body of facts on which to proceed. Upon a closer examination, however, of the various reports that had been made, and knowing, from experience, how much it is the practice of those who are examined before committees to propound some favourite theory of their own, and give only such results of their observation and experience as support their views—knowing too how impossible it must be for a committee to compare the working of different plans by actual observation upon the spot—I acquiesced in the propriety of issuing a commission, and the result amply justifies the measure; for I will venture to say, that there is no man who has read these reports who can refuse to admit, that all he before knew of the subject in its details, was as nothing in the comparison.

It does not become me to occupy your lordships in bestowing praises upon the ability and zeal with which the commissioners have performed their important office. Their report is before you. I believe that no better individuals could be selected for the discharge of those important duties than the persons first named in the commission—the two right reverend prelates, whose absence on this occasion—occasioned by their necessary attendance to their episcopal duties—I have so much reason to lament. Another commissioner was Mr. Sturges Bourne, than whom no person can be pointed out more conversant with the subject. His knowledge, too, is practical—not theoretical; he has applied his well-informed mind to the consideration of the whole question—was the author of the only legislative measures which have ever professed to find a remedy for the evil—while, beside his talents and learning, for calmness of temper, and for sa-

gacity, and soundness of judgment, he was, perhaps, better adapted than almost any other person to join this commission. When I add to these the names of Mr. Senior—a man of profound learning and great capacity—and Mr. Coulson, Mr. Bishop, and Mr. Chadwick, the other able individuals who formed the board, your lordships will feel with me, that from the labours of a body of men so composed, the most satisfactory results might surely be expected. Most of them I before knew, but Mr. Chadwick I never had seen, nor have I now more than once or twice; but I confess I have risen from the perusal of his papers—admirable in all respects for excellence of composition, strength of reasoning, soundness of judgment, and all that indicates the possession of every species of talent—I say I have risen from the perusal with a degree of admiration that I find it difficult either to suppress or to describe. Such are the men who have well and truly performed the duties imposed upon them. Their reports, large in bulk, but larger still in comprehensive reach of understanding and information—interesting in the narrative, but painful—almost excruciating in the tale they tell—no man can read without entertaining the sanguine hope, that for ills so enormous, the remedy may at length be within our power. I think, however, I shall render a more acceptable service to your lordships, if, instead of entering into a minute statement of these sad details, I confine myself to a general outline of the facts; presenting to you, if I can, a graphic sketch of the malady that exists, and pointing to the quarter from which you may expect a cure.

First, then, we have a constant, and I may say almost a regular proof, in every part of the country, in districts agricultural, manufacturing, and even commercial, and whether the people are superabundant or scarce, increasing, stationary, or diminishing in numbers, that able-bodied men prefer a small sum in idleness to a larger sum in wages, attended with the condition of earning those wages by labour. We have in one place a young man saying, “I have 3*s.* 6*d.* a-week from the parish—I do not work—I have no need to labour; I would rather have my 3*s.* 6*d.* without working, than toil to get 10*s.* or 12*s.* a-week.” This is not a singular instance. But are these persons only idle? Are they really doing nothing? Do they receive 3*s.* 6*d.* and remain inactive? Do they work no mischief? My lords, it is idle in me to put such questions. These persons are making the parish pay 3*s.* 6*d.* a-week, out of the honest labourer’s hard earnings, to maintain the constant promoters of crime, the greatest workers of mischief in the country; men who, when they happen not to be the ringleaders, are the ready accomplices and followers in every depredation, every outrage that is perpetrated in their neighbourhood. But those facts are not confined to agricultural districts, or to inland places, and to lazy rustics. Look to the hardy sailor, who never used to know what danger was—look to the very boatmen of the Kentish coast—they who formerly would rush to a wreck without looking to the waves any more than to the reward—who would encounter the most appalling perils to save a life, with as much alacrity as they would dance round a May-pole, or run a cargo of smuggled goods,

in the midst of tempest, or in the teeth of the preventive service—those men who, if you had ever said, in former times, “Surely you do not mean to launch your boat at this tempestuous time of year?” would answer by instinct, “Time of year!—we take no count of seasons—by our boats we live: from the sea, in winter as in summer, we must seek our sustenance; fair weather or foul, our vessels must be afloat, else how could we keep our families from the parish?” No such answer will you get now. The same spirit of honest and daring independence inflames them no more. “We have 12s. a-week from the parish,” say the Kentish sailors; “we will go out no longer in winter—we will wait for summer and fair weather—we will live at home the while, for the parish fund provides us.” Comment upon such facts is superfluous. But the same classes now assume that they who live upon the parish have a right not only to work as little as the independent labourer, but not to work so hard. They have in many places distinctly set up this claim; and in one or two instances appeals have actually been made by the paupers against the overseers upon the ground that the latter had attempted, as they say, “a thing till then unknown in these parishes, to make the paupers work the same number of hours in the day as the independent labourers, who receive no parochial assistance.” These are things which almost force incredulity; but when we see them proved by evidence which admits of no doubt, belief is extorted from us.

The next general fact which presents itself to our view is, that as those persons claim a right to work less than they who receive no parish relief, so they are generally better off, and in many instances, much better off, than the independent labourer. The disproportion, in some parts of the country, and especially in the county of Sussex and the Isle of Wight, has gone so far, that a pauper working only for a limited number of hours in the day, earns 16s. a-week of the parish money, whilst the honest labourer, who has struggled to keep himself independent of the parish, has not been enabled, by his utmost exertion, to earn, by any possible means, more than 12s. a-week. And in one parish it appears that two hundred and forty paupers, who were paid exactly the same wages as independent labourers, were dissatisfied because they were required to work the same number of hours, and grumbled because they were not paid more. Nay, they did not confine themselves to grumbling—they struck work, sought the overseer, and almost by force obtained an increase of wages; that is to say, they compelled the parish to give them more than the ordinary amount of wages paid to independent workmen. Then it is needless to say that the parish pauper regards himself independent of fair weather or foul, of bad health or good, of the full harvest or scanty crop, of all the calamities to which the rest of mankind are subject. Again: all shame of begging is utterly banished—the pauper glories in his dependence—if, indeed, he does not consider the land as his own, and its nominal proprietor as his steward. Nay, instances are to be found of the shame being, by a marvellous perversion of feeling, turned the other way; and the solitary exception to the rule of parish relief under which a whole hamlet lived, “being

shamed," as a female said, "out of her singularity, and forced by her neighbours to take the dole like themselves!" But, for all this, I do not blame the pauper; I blame the bad law and its worse administration, which have made him a worthless member of society. The law of nature says, that a man shall support his child—that the child shall support his aged and infirm parent—and that near relations shall succour one another in distress. But our law speaks another language, saying to the parent, "Take no trouble of providing for your child,"—to the child, "Undertake not the load of supporting your parent,—throw away none of your money on your unfortunate brother or sister, all these duties the public will take on itself." It is, in truth, one of the most painful and disgusting features of this law, that it has so far altered the nature of men. It is now a common thing to hear the father say, "If you allow me only so many shillings a-week for children, I will drive them from my doors, and deny them the shelter of my roof;" and it is not unusual to hear the child say, "If you do not allow my aged mother more, I shall take her out of my house, and lay her in the street, or at the overseer's door." I state this from the text of the evidence, and, horrible as it appears, I cannot refuse it my belief. My lords, those who framed the statute of Elizabeth were not adepts in political science,—they were not acquainted with the true principle of population,—they could not foresee that a Malthus would arise to enlighten mankind upon that important, but as yet ill understood, branch of science,—they knew not the true principle upon which to frame a preventive check, or favour the prudential check to the unlimited increase of the people. To all that they were blind; but this I give them credit for,—this they had the sagacity to foresee,—that they were laying the foundation of a system of wretchedness and vice for the poor,—of a system which would entail upon them the habitual breach of the first and most sacred law of nature, while it hardened the heart against the tenderest sympathies, and eradicated every humane feeling from the human bosom;—and therefore the same statute of Elizabeth which first said that labour and the reward of labour should be separated,—the same statute which enacted a law contrary to the dispensation of Providence and to the order of nature,—foreseeing that the consequence would be to estrange the natural feelings of the parent for his child, and of the child for his parent, for the first time in the history of human legislation, deemed it necessary to declare, by a positive enactment, that a child should be compelled, by the statute in such case made and provided, to obey the dictates of the most powerful feelings of nature,—to follow the commands of the law implanted in every breast by the hand of God, and to support his aged and infirm parent!

If we survey the consequences of all this, not only upon the poor, but upon the landed proprietors of the country, and upon the property of the country itself, we find that they are to the full as melancholy as any other of the countless mischiefs flowing from the mal-administration of the poor laws. I will not say that many farms have been actually abandoned,—I will not say that many parishes have been

wholly given up to waste for want of occupants (I know there are instances of farms here and there, and of one parish, I think in the county of Bucks, which has been reduced to this state), but I will not say that as yet the system has so worked as to lay waste any considerable portion of territory. That it has a direct and a necessary tendency to do so—that unless its progress be arrested, it must go on till it gain that point—that ere long we must reach the brink of the precipice towards which we are hurrying with accelerated rapidity—that the circumstance of one parish being thrown out of cultivation, inevitably and immediately tends to lay three or four others waste, and that this devastation, gathering strength as it proceeds, must needs cover the land—of these facts no man, who consults the body of evidence before your lordships, can entertain the shadow of a doubt. Stand where we are we cannot. I might say, with others whose minds are filled with despair and the dread of coming events, that I could be content never to have things better, so I were assured that they would never be worse; but this—even this wretched compromise is impossible, with the frightful scourge that is ravaging our country. The question is,—shall we retrace our steps, or shall we push forward, and down the steep we stand on, by the *momentum* of this weight we have laid upon ourselves? That such is our position,—that such is the course we are pursuing,—that such is the gulf towards which we are hastening,—no man living, gifted with an ordinary measure of sagacity, can deny. This, then, is the picture of our situation, harsh in its outline, dismal in its colouring, in every feature sad, and awful to behold. This is the aspect of affairs, menacing the peace of society, undermining the safety of dominion, and assailing the security of property, which the system, as now administered, exhibits to the eye. In this it is that the schemes of man, as short-sighted as presumptuous, have ended, when he sought to reverse the primal curse, under which he eats his bread in sorrow and the sweat of his brow. Our poor law said, The sweat shall trickle down that brow no more; but the residue of the curse it has not reversed—for in sorrow he shall eat it still. The dispensation of wrath, which appointed toil for the penalty of transgression, was tempered with the mercy which shed countless blessings upon industry—industry that sweetens the coarsest morsel, and softens the hardest pillow; but not under the poor law! Look to that volume, and you will find the pauper tormented with the worst ills of wealth—listless and unsettled—wearing away the hours, restless and half awake, and sleepless all the night that closes his slumbering day—needy, yet pampered—ill-fed, yet irritable and nervous. Oh! monstrous progeny of this unnatural system, which has matured, in the squalid recesses of the workhouse, the worst ills that haunt the palace, and made the pauper the victim of those imaginary maladies which render wealthy idleness less happy than laborious poverty! Industry, the safeguard against impure desires—the true preventive of crimes; but not under the poor law! Look at that volume, the record of idleness, and her sister guilt, which now stalk over the land. Look at the calendar, which they have filled to overflowing, notwithstanding the improve-

ment of our jurisprudence, and the progress of education. Industry, the corner-stone of property, which gives it all its value, and makes it the cement of society; but not under the poor law! For it is deprived of its rights and its reward, finds its place usurped by indolence, and sees wrong and violence wear the garb, and urging the claims of right; so that all property is shaken to pieces, and the times are fast approaching when it shall be no more! In this devastation but one exception remains, in those seats of industry, where the miracles of labour and of skill have established the great triumph of the arts and shed unnumbered blessings on all around; those arts, whose lineage is high—for they are the offspring of science, whose progeny is flourishing—for they are the parents of wealth. They have, indeed, stayed for a season in the districts which they nourish and adorn, the progress of the overwhelming mischief: but long even they cannot arrest its devastation, and this last pillar cannot long remain, after all the rest of the edifice has been swept away! They cannot stay the wide-wasting ruin; but we can, and we must. It behoves us to make a stand before one common ruin involves all, and tread back our steps, that we may escape the destruction which is on the wing, and hovering around our door.

Let me then ask your lordships' attention for a moment, while I trace more particularly the cause of the mischiefs of which we have now been contemplating the gloomy picture. I shall say nothing at present of repealing the poor law itself. I shall, for the present, assume that the statute of Elizabeth cannot now be dealt with. I shall take it to be fixed irrevocably as the law of the land, and I will proceed upon the supposition that it is impossible now to reduce things again to the state in which they were previous, I will not say to the 43d, but to the 5th, of Elizabeth. Desirable as it may be to place the system on a better footing, and difficult as it is not to wish for some radical change which may prevent a recurrence of the calamities we are suffering under, I yet feel that this is most difficult to effect, because it is the evil of all bad laws worse administered, that we must continue to bear them, on account of the danger which may spring from their sudden repeal. Much, however, may be done with the administration of the system, and to this it is that practical wisdom directs us to apply the remedy. The separate and opposite jurisdictions of different magistrates, overseers, and benches of justices, the want of system and unity in practice, lie at the root of the evil; and the report teems with instances of the mischiefs which have flowed from this source. When you look at a district in which a better system of administration has been adopted, and contrast it with one, perhaps in the very next parish, where the bad course has been pursued, you would hardly think that you were looking at two parts of the same county, or even of the same island, so different are the effects. In the one a total change of system has been effected—the rates have speedily come down, at first to one-half, and afterwards to one-third—paupers disappear, and industry regains its just place; while, upon crossing a brook, you find in the other parish a swarm of sturdy beggars depriving the honest labourer of his hire, and the rental crumbling down daily and hourly into the

poor's box—always filled, and always empty. Then, how comes it to pass, that, with the example before their eyes, the authorities in the latter parish persevere in their course? The good effects of a rigid abstinence in administering relief, have been strongly exemplified in Scotland, and yet that experience has been quite thrown away upon England. In Scotland, down to a recent period, doubts were entertained by lawyers, as to whether or not there existed any right of compulsory assessment for the poor. It is now agreed that the right exists; and the English and Scotch laws are admitted to rest generally upon the same foundation. The administration of them, however, has been widely different in the two countries. The Scotch, a careful and provident people, always watchful and fearful of consequences, kept an exceedingly close hand upon the managers of the poor's fund, and did everything in their power to ward off the necessity of assessments—reserving so perilous a resort for times of emergency, such as in the extraordinary scarcity of the years 1795 and 1800. This was the most rational plan that could be pursued, for it prevented the introduction of regular and habitual relief, and the setting apart a constant fund for maintaining the poor. In some instances it has been acted upon in England, but in very few, comparatively; for there has been no unity of action, no general control; and the neighbourhood of Scotland and the success of the right practice there, have produced no considerable amendment of our vicious system. Hence I infer the necessity of a central, rigorous, and uniform plan of administration. And here I would step aside for one instant to illustrate this observation by a fact. It is generally said, "How can you do better, or act more safely, than by leaving to the parties interested the administration of their own affairs?" Generally speaking, I am willing to adopt that principle, and to proceed upon it: I believe the principle to be most sound; and, moreover, I am disposed to think that its application tends exceedingly to promote good government, and to prevent the evils of a meddling, petty, overdoing legislation. Nevertheless, experience certainly does show, that it is not universally applicable; or rather, that it is not applicable to places where the concerns of a number of persons are managed by a majority of their body, and not each man's by himself; for when a certain leaven of men gets into an assembly, all of whom have a voice in the management of the common concerns, it very often happens that a combination takes place, arising from sinister and interested views; and that this junto, by its activity and intrigues, baffles the general disposition to consult the common interest, and sets it at nought. I happen to know an instance of this, and I will mention it to your lordships, by way of illustration: it was given in evidence before the famous education committee of the other House, sixteen years ago. In two of the parishes of this city, there were several great charities supported without endowment, by voluntary subscription. Mr. Baron Bailey, himself a large contributor to these, as he is to all benevolent institutions, proposed to establish a rule, that no tradesman on the committee of management, should be employed in supplying the institutions in question, because it was justly apprehended by the

learned judge, that where such persons were interested, there would be no very rigorous inquiry into the necessity of making the purchases, and no very strict audit of the accounts. Nevertheless, the proposition, though tending to save the funds, and therefore required by the pecuniary interests of the body who raised those funds, was rejected by a great majority of the committee, who were themselves contributors. They said that they had always been in the habit of employing one another to supply the institution, and that they were determined to continue the practice. The custom of another charity in the same neighbourhood was apparently better—but really just the same. There, a by-law was in force, that no man should be employed as a tradesman to the charity while he was upon the managing committee. But this check was defeated by having a double set of tradesmen, who belonged to the committee in alternate years, and were employed each in his turn as he went out of office. I believe a proposal was made to correct this gross abuse; but, like the suggestion of Mr. Baron Bailey, it was rejected by the subscribers, to save whose money it was brought forward.

Here, then, we find men in the disbursement of their own funds, and in pursuit of their own objects, determined to suffer, with their eyes open, abuses which daily defraud them, and persisting in a course which makes it unavoidable that their pockets should be picked before their eyes. But do not facts like these demonstrate how long a vicious system may continue in any vestry or managing committee against the interests of the general body, if it contributes to the advantage of a few? Does it not also show how much longer a bad system may prevail in any vestry or parish, where the individuals most interested have not the same control as in a voluntary association, and how easily the most flagrant abuses may continue to receive protection from those they injure, before men's eyes are opened—ay, and after they have been opened? Because I am not now speaking of a few ignorant farmers, who, by the bye, have not by any means so strong an interest in the matter as the landlords; but of more enlightened persons, and of bodies less open to abuse than the authorities of country parishes. Surely the inhabitants of a remote hamlet are much more likely to keep their eyes shut upon such subjects than the inhabitants of St. George's, Bloomsbury, and St. George's, Hanover Square. Therefore, the evils of a scattered, and varying, and uncertain administration of these laws, it behoves Parliament above all things, and before all things, to correct, with a view to establishing authorities able well and wisely to overlook the relief of the poor and the expenditure it occasions. For this object the present bill proposes to provide—precisely upon the views to which I have shown that experience guides us. The main principle of the measure is this—to leave the law, generally speaking, as it stands at present, but to tread back our steps as far as we can towards a due administration of it; and having once brought things nearer to their position in some particular parishes where the experiment has been tried, and salutary improvements effected, and to their state generally in Scotland, then

to take such steps in reference to the law itself as shall prevent a recurrence of the same abuses. I have now to entreat your lordships' attention to the course taken in constructing the measure before you; but I wish, in the outset of my remarks, to take notice of an objection to our measure—an objection, however, which has been more heard out of doors than within the walls of Parliament. I allude to the outcry set up against the report, as a thing framed by theorists and visionaries, and to sum up all in one word of vituperation, by political economists; that is the grand term of reproach. As if only theorists and visionaries could be students and professors of the despised science of political economy! Why, my lords, some of the most eminent practical men in this country—individuals the most celebrated, not as rash and dreaming speculators, but as sober statesmen—leaders of opposition—ministers and heads of cabinets—men whose names as they were, when living, the designations of the parties into which the whole country was marshalled, have passed after death into epithets synonymous with practical wisdom, among their followers—it is among these men that I should look, if I were called upon to point out the greatest cultivators of political economy that have flourished in my own day. Is it necessary for me to remind you that Adam Smith—another name which excites a sneer, but only among the grovelling and the ignorant—that the name of that eminent economist was first made generally known through his intimacy with Mr. Pitt, and by Mr. Pitt referring in Parliament to the high authority of his immortal work? Mr. Pitt was distinguished by his study of political economy, though his policy did not always proceed upon its soundest principles, and when he would have applied them, his attempts were not always attended with success. Such, at least, is my opinion now, speaking after the event, and with the cheap and easy wisdom which experience affords, yet always speaking with respect for that eminent man's science and talents, which no one, how rude or ignorant soever, will be found bold enough to question. I think he committed mistakes—perhaps in his situation I might have fallen into the same errors; but was Mr. Pitt a dreamer?—was Mr. Pitt a visionary? Was Mr. Canning, who also professed and practised the science of political economy, a philosopher, a mere speculator, or a fantastical builder of ideal systems? My lords, I have heard many persons object to Mr. Canning's policy; I did so myself at one period, though I afterwards co-operated with him when his views were liberal and sound; but neither at the one period of his political life, nor at the other, do I recollect ever hearing any body bold or foolish enough to designate that eminent man as a visionary or a theorist. Then we had Mr. Huskisson—he, too, a political economist, and indeed profoundly conversant with the science; but I suppose he was no practical man,—I suppose he knew nothing of the financial—nothing of the commercial relations of this country—nothing of the distribution of its wealth—nothing of the bearings of its mercantile laws and fiscal regulations upon her trade and manufactures. I verily think, that if I were to search all England over, and to ransack

the whole volumes of our annals at any period for the name of a practical statesman,—and who habitually discarded theory for practice,—one who looked to every theory with suspicion, and adopted only those doctrines which were grounded upon the most incontestable results of experience—a pilot, who, in guiding the vessel of the state, proceeded with the lead-line ever in his hand, and ever sounding as he sailed—who never suffered her to stir until he knew the depth, the bottom, ahead and all around, and left no current, tide, or breeze out of his account;—if I were to name one man whom I have known or heard of, or whom history has recorded, and to whom this description is most eminently applicable, Mr. Huskisson is the name I should at once pronounce. To swell the catalogue with other bright and noble instances, would be much more easy than useful. Thus I might add Mr. Henry Thornton, an author of high fame, whose works were among the first that enlightened us on the subject of currency, and fixed the principles that govern this branch of science. But Mr. Henry Thornton was a banker; and an intelligent, skilful, prosperous banker. And it is these great men—great as philosophers, but better known as men of business—the Pitts, the Cannings, the Huskissons, the Thorntons, who with Dr. Smith and after his example, entered themselves in the school of the economists,—they it is whom I am fated to hear derided as visionaries and schemers. But I have unawares named the science which was cultivated by Quesnai, Turgot, and other illustrious French philosophers, and have thus exposed it to a different attack, from ignorance yet more gross than that which denied authority to the names of the English statesmen I have mentioned. I have referred to the French economists, and I know full well that they have been derided as republicans—very little to my astonishment, prepared as I am by experience to see the effects of ignorance—for ignorance has no bounds. Unhappily science has its limits, and they are not hard to reach; but ignorance is endless, unconfined, inexhaustible,—ever new in invention, though all its productions are wretched and worthless,—always surprising you, though mingling pity and contempt with wonderment: and never is it more daring in its inroads upon our credulity—never is it more strange in the antic feats it performs—never more curious in the fantastic tricks it plays, than when its gambols are performed in the persons of men dressed in a little brief authority, or who would fain be so attired, and who really are decked habitually in presumption that almost passes belief. Why, my lords, every body who knows anything of the French economists, knows full well that they flourished under an absolute despotism,—that they were the great friends and the firm supporters of absolute monarchy,—that they abhorred liberty, and abhorred republicanism,—and that one of their errors, in my opinion the most fatal they could commit, was holding the doctrine that what they called *despotisme legal*, in other words, an absolute monarchy, was the best form of government: accompanying their doctrine however, with this reservation, “if you have a good king at the head of it;” as if the sole use of all restraints upon power was

not founded on the risk of having bad rulers; as if the absence of control did not, while man is man, ensure a succession of bad monarchs. But I only mention this to show, that whatever charges the French economists may be justly exposed to, assuredly love of a republic, or even of rational liberty, is not of the number. Such is the presumption of that abject ignorance which would give certain men, and the science they explore, a bad name, not even knowing the true sense of the words it takes upon itself to use. Far, then, from being with me an objection, that these invaluable dissertations and statements of fact have been prepared by political philosophers—that all this mass of useful evidence has been collected by them, and that many propositions have been made by them, some of which, and only some, are adopted as the groundwork of the present measure,—I derive confidence from the reflection that it is so—that we have been helped by political economists, men who have devoted themselves to the study of that useful and practical science, and with them I cheerfully expose myself, and not only with them, but with all the illustrious names of men now no more, and all the other illustrious men that happily still remain, and whom, for that very reason, I have forborne to mention, to the charge of being a speculator, and a visionary, and a theorist. I will not deny, however, that if I had perceived in these highly gifted persons, the tendency, sometimes abused in men of science, to ground their opinions on mere reasoning, uncorrected by experience, and to frame systems with a view to fair symmetry, rather than to the facts now before us, I should then have exercised my judgment and said, “Those proposals, how daintily and ingeniously soever they be prepared, I reject.” My lords, we have picked our way slowly and carefully through facts and documents; we have rejected somewhere about one half of the suggestions that have been made, a portion of that half being precisely the part most important in the eyes of the men from whom they have proceeded: we thought that, in a practical point of view, it was better to postpone them at all events for the present: but I beg leave distinctly to state, that hereafter, when time shall have been allowed for inquiry and consideration, and when this measure shall have paved the way for the reception of ulterior projects, they will, should experience warrant their adoption, receive my assent.

Let us next consider for one moment what is likely to be the best way of reforming the administration of the poor laws, by retracing the steps that have led us to the present state of things. I think I may lay it down as clearly following from what I have stated, that there is one main point, the necessity of arriving at which cannot be denied—I mean securing such a degree of unity of action in the authorities invested with the parochial superintendence, as can be obtained only by the establishment of one central power. In the second place, I think it follows that the persons in whom this control shall be vested, must be armed with very ample discretionary power. Next, it seems clear that these ought not to be political persons, if I may so speak—that they should be members of neither House of Parliament—men be-

longing to no party—men unconnected (politically speaking) with the administration of public affairs, and unmixed with the contests of the state. If I should be consulted in the choice of the individuals, I will only say—"show me a person (and I think I know that person) whose opinions on party matters differ most widely from my own, and if he be a man of firm mind, of extensive experience as to the working of the poor laws, of conciliatory manners, of sound discretion—if he be a man whom I can trust for his temper (one of the prime requisites in such a work), and that man I prefer before any of those with whom I most agree in politics;—nay more, if I saw two persons sufficiently gifted, but of opposite political opinions, I would name one of each party, in order the better to gain the confidence of the public—to show the country that in the appointments, there is no favour—that, in the selection, the only consideration has been qualifications and deserts. I have said that extensive and effective reform in the administration of these laws can only be accomplished by intrusting large discretionary powers to the commissioners. Of this no doubt can exist; and a very slight attention to the subject will convince you of it. The bad practices have taken such root, and spread so widely, that a strong hand alone can extirpate them. But it must be not only strong—it must be ever ready; in other words, all must be left to the discretion of the men intrusted; for if each time a step should be taken, either going too far, or going in the wrong direction, or stopping short of the proper point and not going far enough, you had to wait until Parliament was assembled, and a bill brought in to change the plan, and a new act passed, it is needless to remind you that for months the whole of the machinery must stand still. As any individual, on such a subject, will be exposed to err, so may Parliament, in any measure of detail it can frame—ay, and fall into serious errors too. Good God! who shall say that the wisdom of all the lawgivers in the world may not lead them into error, upon matters which for nearly three centuries have baffled the wisest of men in every nation? You have delegated to the judges powers of altering from day to day the rules of pleading and of practice, merely because you distrusted your own foresight, and did not arrogate to yourselves the power of being beforehand as wise as experience could make you. Again, one part of the country may require one mode of treatment, another may require the application of different remedies; agricultural districts will stand in need of a very different treatment from that which must be employed with commercial and manufacturing places; nay, the circumstances of one agricultural parish may be so entirely different from those of another, even of one in its immediate vicinity, as to render the same course of management inapplicable to both. The point we are desirous of reaching, it is true, is one and the same for all; the state of things we would bring all back to is the same; but the road to be taken towards this point is necessarily different in different places, for each may have deviated from the right path by a different route, and by a different route must be brought back. One uniform inflexible rule, prescribed by statute, can therefore never be applied to these various cases; and

hence the operation must be performed by a discretionary power lodged somewhere, that the hand which works may feel its way, and vary its course according to the facilities or obstructions it may encounter; nay, an arbitrary discretion, to use a word which has been employed, invidiously, towards the measure, and arbitrary, to a certain extent, it must be; because it must be both ample and unconfined, in order that the rules for its exercise may not paralyze its movements.

My lords, I am perfectly aware that such powers as these may be designated as unconstitutional. I am aware that at any rate they are in one sense novel to a certain extent; but their being wholly novel and altogether without precedent, I utterly deny. They are novel, as vested in one board, but they are far from being novel in themselves. I could take the first fifty local poor acts to be found in the index to the statutes, and engage to show you that every one of those acts contains stronger, more drastic, more rigorous, more arbitrary, and therefore less constitutional powers, than any that will be given by this bill to the central board. And by whom are the powers which these local acts confer to be exercised, and in what circumstances, and under what superintendence and control? Those powers are given to the very men of all others the most likely to abuse them—men self-elected, unknown, of no weight, and of narrow mind; those powers are to be exercised in a corner—in the dark—not in the face of the country—with no one to watch, to revise, to control—they are to be wielded beyond the reach of the legislature, by persons not removable by the Crown, accountable to no secretary of state, overlooked and checked by no King in Council, as this central board will be—and exercised by men far too small to be perceptible by the public eye, therefore far removed from any influence of public opinion. My lords, can you hesitate one moment, when you have conferred so much larger and more dangerous powers upon irresponsible bodies, to vest the powers of this bill in such a board, acting upon the responsibility of known and eminent men, and fenced round about with the triple guard of the Crown, the Parliament, and the country at large?

My lords, I have now stated the principles upon which we are led to frame this great measure. I have shown, from the direction the evil has taken, and the manner of its operation, how we are led to these four conclusions—the necessity of a central board—the necessity of its separation from the strife of political affairs—the necessity of vesting in it powers both large and discretionary—and the necessity of its exercising those powers under the inspection of the legislature, and the control of the executive government. These principles, deduced from the facts, and dictated by our sad experience of the necessity, form the groundwork of the system. That the control of the crown may be more constant and effectual, the commissioners are to be removable at pleasure; they are to report all orders to the Secretary of State; and those orders are to have no effect for forty days after this communication, during which period an order in council may annul them.

I entreat such of your lordships as question the safety of such

ample power as the board must have, to consider how strict a control is thus established over its proceedings; add to this the watchful superintendence of both Houses of Parliament, and then reflect upon the constant control of public opinion, and I confidently say, that the requisite powers may be safely and prudently intrusted to the new board. But still it is said that they are unconstitutional—still it is said that they are as novel as unwelcome to the country. My lords, if this be a great step—if this be an extraordinary enactment—if this be an unheard-of measure which we are now discussing;—supposing I admit it all—I ask, are not the times in which we live, in this respect, of an extraordinary aspect? Is the state of things in which we are called upon to legislate one that has often or that has ever existed before? Is not the evil we are pressed down by unheard of? Is the existing condition of our peasantry and our land-owners not a novelty and a portentous novelty—the growth of very late times, yet daily increasing, and swelling out its hideous form? Many bills, with more unconstitutional clauses, have I seen during the last thirty years, where boards have been constituted of irresponsible men—men endowed with great powers, to be exercised in the dark. But I have never yet seen times like these in which I now bring forward this bill. We live in times, indeed, very different from those that are past, when a report is presented to us, founded upon the concurrent testimony of magistrates, country gentlemen, clergymen, farmers, labourers, and parish officers—of manufacturers and tradesmen—of men of science and men of no science at all—of men of practical knowledge, and men of theoretical principles—of the dwellers in towns, and the inhabitants of the country—of those who have been constantly in vestries—of those who have been all their lives occupied in the administration of the poor laws, as magistrates, as barristers, or as judges. Talk of unheard-of measures, and of unprecedented discretionary powers, in a case like this, when you have all this hitherto unheard-of—this altogether unprecedented, consentaneous, and uncontradicted testimony, borne by every different kind of witnesses in every class and walk of life, and sanctioned by every variety of talent and argument that can be found in all kinds of minds, corroborated by all those whose weight of judgment makes them the best authorities upon the principles, and whose experience makes them the most competent witnesses of the facts! I say, my lords, you not only may, but you must listen to these recommendations, when you have the best judges in the matters of opinion—and the best witnesses to the matter of fact—all in one voice representing to you a state of things which has made industry and idleness, honesty and knavery, change places; and which exposes the property of the community, and with its property, every law, every institution, every valuable possession, every precious right, to the ravages of that remorseless pestilence, before whose strides you, the guardians of the social happiness of those who live under your protection, have beheld the peasantry of England abased to a pitch which I am at once afflicted and ashamed to contemplate—which I shudder to describe—and which I could not

bear to think of, did I not know that the same hand which lays it bare to your eyes, and makes its naked deformity horrible in your sight, will be enabled, by your assistance, to apply to the foul disease a safe, an effectual remedy; restoring to industry its safe reward, and visiting idleness with its appropriate punishment; reinstating property in security, and lifting up once more, God be praised!—the character of that noble English peasantry to the proud eminence, where, but for the poor laws, it would still have shone untarnished—the admiration of mankind, and the glory of the country which boasts it as its brightest ornament!

My lords, there are other alterations of the system,—many and important alterations—introduced by this bill; but exhausted as your patience must be, and fatigued as I am myself, I shall not think of entering into them, except generally and briefly. Out of the poor law of Queen Elizabeth,—which gave every man a title to claim relief from some parish or other—arose the law of settlement. My earnest hope is, that by the alteration which this bill will produce in the state of the country, we shall find that, in another half century,—or it may be at a much earlier period—the country will be in such a state as to enable us to make still further improvements than those which are now contemplated in the case of settlement. This applies particularly to one branch of the subject—namely, birth-settlement—a point which the bill avoids and makes no change in. My lords, I own that I could have wished to make some alteration in this respect; but I have great hopes that the improved administration of those laws will enable us to introduce some amendments with regard to it. I know that, if they were propounded at present, it would be said to be taking a step of too extensive a nature without due reflection and preparation. The proposition of making the place of birth the place of settlement, has been considered and rejected by the House of Commons after full examination. I own that I am disposed to think that birth-settlement would be a great improvement, or rather a settlement by residence, which is in all respects better. Still I am aware that objections may be urged against both, and more especially a settlement by birth alone; but I shall be perfectly willing to discuss it in committee, although, for the reasons I have already stated, I do not think it would be desirable to make the alteration at the present time. One great defect of the existing law upon this subject—that of derivative settlement by parentage—is, that a man may become chargeable himself, and may make others chargeable, upon a parish which has no control whatever over his proceedings. Thus stands the case:—Suppose I am a Westmoreland pauper—as I certainly very soon may be if the present system continues—then suppose I go and live in Northamptonshire, but that I do not gain a settlement there,—suppose I make an improvident marriage, and have as many children as, in the course of nature, would fall to the lot of a man at any time of life; I have, it may be, ten or twelve children; that is supposing I were eighteen. Well, suppose—as is very often the case in such instances—that the wife had peculiar claims upon me before marriage, I might

be compelled by the overseers to contract a marriage with her. This, be it recollected, is in Northamptonshire. Now, those churchwardens in Northamptonshire who can procure and almost compel the marriage, and those landlords in Northamptonshire who refuse to let me a £10 tenement, and those farmers in Northamptonshire who refuse me a hiring by the year, but allow me to have a family in one of their smallest cottages, have the power to suffer or to forbid me gaining a settlement, but have no interest in my not gaining one among them; indeed, they have rather a direct interest the other way—they have a direct inducement to increase the number of paupers, who are to burden the rates of the Westmoreland parish, while the Westmoreland parish, which has the interest in preventing my having a family in a Northamptonshire cottage, has no power whatever to impede that event. If, on the contrary, the place of settlement were the place of birth, all this contradiction and anomaly would cease; for if my children gained a settlement in Northamptonshire as soon as they were born, the overseers would not be so very anxious for my contracting a marriage, nor would the landlords have such an interest in letting me have a cottage. By the present law, however, these inducements to commit what is a great injustice certainly exist.

But let us next consider the settlement by hiring and service, which is struck out by the bill. I think this settlement is almost universally exploded, whether by theorists or by practical men, and it is denounced in this measure as utterly bad, and tending directly against every principle which it would be most desirable to establish for our guide.

One of the first consequences of the law which gives every person a settlement in the parish in which he is hired and serves by the year, is a perpetual attempt to evade the law, which, from its tendency to weaken the general respect that ought to be felt for any legislative enactment, is in itself an evil of no small magnitude; for no lawgiver should wish to put his subjects in a constant attempt to evade any of his commands. The statute of Elizabeth gives a settlement to every one who is hired and serves by the year; but it gives no settlement to one who is hired for 360 days instead of 365. This is a gross evasion of the act, and yet it is one which takes place from one end of the year to the other, from one end of the island to the other. What is the consequence of the evasion? That great chicanery and much trickery exist. The next consequence is, that hostility and distrust arise between master and man, the man attempting to gain a settlement, the master endeavouring to fend him off; and thus it happens that they are no longer on the friendly footing, in the confidential and kindly habits on which master and man ought to be placed, and on which they stood previous to the years 1794 and 1795. This evasion of the law of settlement began to be generally practised, I think, at the commencement of the French war, and it gradually led to the discontinuance of that laudable custom of boarding farm-servants in the house—a custom which was attended with the very best results, both to the moral character of the labourers, and to the comforts of the whole farm. They were on the kindest terms with the master; they

formed part of the same family; the master was more like the head of a patriarchal family, and the labourers were like his children; they were treated as such; they dined at the same table, and slept under the same roof; and they worked together in the same field. I have frequently seen them in these habits; I have partaken of their fare, and better no one could desire to have set before him, whose appetites were unpampered and unvitiated. The whole household lived more comfortably, because better cheer could be afforded where so many were entertained together. There was a certain degree of domestic control; there was the parental superintendence exercised by the master over the men, and there was the moral sanction of the matron of the family over her maids. The master was the friend and counsellor of the men; the dame of the women. If one of either sex was about to contract an improvident marriage, their advice would be interposed. Although they never heard of the prudential check, nor knew anything of political economists even by name, yet, as the doctrines of those philosophers are only the dictates of prudence and common honesty, the farmer and his good wife would set before the young folks the imprudence and dishonesty of a man contracting a marriage before he could maintain a wife and children; she would tell him that which Mr. Malthus is so much abused for saying at all, "Who would ever buy more horses than he can afford to pay for, or afford to keep? Then why should you marry when you have scarcely the means of supporting yourself, for the mere purpose of bringing into the world a number of miserable wretches for whom you have no bread?" I will venture to say, that in those happier times, bastardy was not one-twentieth part so common as it is now. Of late years, all this has been sadly changed; farm servants are hired for eleven months and a half; they are then turned out of the house lest they should obtain a settlement, and the consequence is, that they spend half the time before they are hired again at the alehouse, to which they never thought of going before, except on a merry-making day, once in several months. The consequence of this has been, that the habits of the servants have become more dissolute from constant change of place, and that an unfortunate stimulus has been given to the progress of population by the labourers living in cottages. The effect of this interval of a fortnight or three weeks, during which the servants are necessarily out of all places, and running about to fairs and markets, has been fatal to their habits and morals. I can state this, my lords, from my own experience and observation; I have also heard from others numerous instances in which men have become idle and dissolute by being turned out in this way. But if the system is bad for the men, it is a great deal worse for the female servants; for what is to become of a poor girl with a father and mother fifty miles off, who has nothing to do, and nowhere to go to but to run about from one market to another? My lords, it is quite vain to doubt, that, during that fortnight, she has every chance of losing her character, and of becoming a very different person from what she was before. For these reasons it is that I exceedingly rejoice in the provision of the bill

which abolishes this settlement by hiring altogether. The abolition of the settlement by apprenticeship is also a salutary provision, but it is not so important as getting rid of the settlement by hiring. It is an improvement certainly, because the present law gives rise to much litigation; but I do not set any great store by it. All the other modes of acquiring a settlement remain as they are, with the exception of that arising from the hiring of a £10 tenement, upon which an additional check is imposed, by requiring the payment of taxes during a year. Such, my lords, are the changes which have been made in the law of settlement, and which, for the reasons I have shortly stated, appear to be well recommended.

The only remaining part of the subject, to which I have to call your lordships' attention, is the change which has been made in the bastardy laws. I confess that I think this a bold measure; but, at the same time, I consider it a great and unquestionable improvement. The law, as it now stands, throws it upon the man to avoid the offence, and not upon the woman; it leaves the woman with little or no inducement (so far as the law is concerned) to preserve her chastity, and it relies wholly on the effect of burdens cast on the men, as if it looked to them alone for avoiding the offence. I must, however, go a step further. I am afraid that the present law raises up a motive in the breast of the woman rather to yield than to resist. I much fear it co-operates with the frailty of the sex; I fear that the seducer of the woman—the man who is laying siege to her virtue—who has always one ally in the garrison ready to beat a parley—her own passions—finds another ally provided for him by the law, and ready to counsel a surrender—that ally is—not her passions, but her reason—her calculation of interest. From the provisions of the law comes the suggestion—"The law is in my favour; if the worst comes to the worst, I can make him marry me—I will hold that over his head—I am doing that which I know to be wrong in itself, but I am doing that which I do not think will be wrong if marriage follows." Thus thoughts are engendered in the breast, still more dangerous to female virtue than all that the passions can excite, and all that speculations of interest can add to the force of the passions. At the critical moment, when those passions are strong, and themselves ready to overpower the judgment, the law first brings over the reason itself to their side, making it her interest to yield, and then furnish a soporific to lull the conscience, by engendering a mistaken feeling of perverted morality, and enabling her to look forward to the period when marriage shall cover her fault. She pursues her calculations—she gratifies her passions—she is induced by false notions of virtue and honour to hear the voice of her seducer—no wonder that the citadel is surrendered.

This, my lords, is the operation of the present bastardy laws. I will describe this conflict of passion and calculation, and interest and honour, against female virtue, no further. It is, indeed, unnecessary to dwell longer upon the subject, when I remind your lordships, that the change now propounded is formed on precisely the same principles on which you legislate every day for the upper classes of society, in

the cases of conjugal infidelity that come before you. How often have we heard it argued, that the husband and the wife should be put upon a par,—that the wife should have the same right to divorce the husband, as the husband now has to divorce the wife,—and that the Scottish and the civil law should be introduced into this country for the better protection of female happiness and female honour! “No,” your lordships have always answered; and I have always answered with you, “No; we will trust the keeping of a woman’s virtue to herself; to her we will apply the threats which may deter from crime; to her apply the dissuasives which may prevent her guilt. If she is afraid to yield, if you make it her interest not to yield, the seducer may beat at the door in vain: his object will be frustrated; yours, and what should be hers, will be gained.” Let this principle be applied to the law of bastardy—let the woman be deprived of the advantage which she possesses at present—let the disadvantage be placed on her side—let the man have less chance of seducing her from the paths of virtue—let her be deprived of an interest in her own undoing and a palliative to her feelings if undone—and you will effect a great, and a most desirable improvement in the morals and the happiness of the poor.

But, my lords, I have now gone through all the points of this great and important measure, which appeared to me to call for explanation. I have detained you, I am afraid, at much too great length, certainly at much greater length than I intended when I rose to speak. I can safely say, in conclusion, that if I have intruded unreasonably on your time, it has not been occasioned by the attractions which any part of this painful and thorny subject presents: it has not been from any delight I have felt in the contemplation of scenes creditable to no party, neither to our ancestors who made the laws, nor to their sons who executed them, nor to succeeding generations of lawgivers, who have, instead of attempting to improve them, done all they could to make bad worse. It has been owing to no gratification which I have experienced in dwelling upon events, and in looking on scenes, revolting to me as an Englishman and a man. It has been from a conscientious sense of public duty that I have unfolded to you a picture as dark and repulsive, as it is but too faithfully portrayed. This sense of duty alone has subdued those feelings which originally alienated me from the task, and made me feel more relieved than I ever felt before in my life, when my noble friend lately at the head of his majesty’s government, declared his intention of bringing this important and difficult subject before you. My lords, I have borne a part in this great question since I first entered the other House of Parliament—having, in the years 1817 and 1818 especially, originated what measures I could towards the reformation of the poor laws—having, in 1831, the instant I became a member of the present administration, turned my mind to this great question, from which I was diverted only by a measure of overwhelming interest, and absorbing all other considerations—I mean the reform bill. In 1832, the commission issued under the great seal, which, of course, prevented my continuing my efforts until its reports

had been received, and which necessarily rendered it impossible to bring the question under the view of Parliament at any earlier period. My lords, these are the circumstances which connected me with this mighty question; and prescribed to me the duty of rendering my feeble assistance towards bringing it before your lordships. My mind acquits me, I can assure you, of any sinister motive in taking the part I am now taking; it acquits me, above all, of any desire to court either for me or for mine, or for those with whom I am nearly and dearly connected in office, any portion of popular feeling.

My lords, it is consolatory to reflect that we have no obloquy to apprehend from any considerable portion of the community. We have only to incur the hazard of misconception in some quarters, of misrepresentation in others, of false direction of right feelings, and of exaggerated views of things little understood, or it may be of malignity worse than ignorance. My lords, we have set before ourselves no possibility of any advantage as a government, or as a party, except the inestimable satisfaction of coming before our country, and challenging from all parties in the state that respect which is due to ministers who manfully take their own course, who look neither to the right hand, nor to the left; who discharge what they feel to be their duty, regardless alike of whom they may irritate or whom they may alarm; and who hold up in their hands the result of their best efforts to serve the community, that has hitherto cordially and affectionately, and I may almost say unanimously, placed implicit confidence in them: resolved at all hazards to show this great and honest people, that at all times, and on all subjects, they will consult only its best interests and its real welfare, hoping for no other reward than an approving conscience, and the judicious verdict of the enlightened, the rational, and the honest part of mankind. I move your lordships, that this bill be now read a second time.

S P E E C H

ON

T H E P O O R L A W S ,

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

MARCH 20, 1838.

I REALLY should not have risen thus early to address your lordships upon the present important occasion, but should have left the task of following the noble earl* either to her Majesty's government,—on whom, as general superintendents of the affairs of the country, and intrusted also with the execution of the new poor law, it would properly have devolved,—or to my noble and much esteemed friend on the cross bench,† who has, from the very first, so honourably to himself and so usefully to his country, devoted a large share of his valuable time, his anxious attention, and his active interference, to the superintendence of the poor law, and to the details of its working. Or I should have been contented to leave—I hope I may be suffered to say this without offering the slightest disrespect to my noble friend‡—I should have been contented to leave, perhaps, my noble friend's speech unanswered,—leaving it to itself, as it were;—sensible as I am that he has made no kind of case against the measure, nor brought any specific charge against those intrusted with its execution, nor produced anything in the shape of facts, or even of accusation, or of so much as specific assertion, to be put to rest, or which might have called for an answer, or required an explanation; but that I had, a few nights back, pledged myself to answer a right reverend prelate's more specific charges, and even my noble friend's‡ more specific statements on former occasions. For, if he will forgive me for saying so, the method which he from time to time has observed, has evinced a prudent and skilful selection of time and opportunities; that is to say, entering into details when men were not prepared to meet him—not prepared to enter into specific matters of charge, on the presentation of petitions,—or on some other interlocutory occasion; but when men

* Earl Stanhope.

† Duke of Richmond.

‡ Earl Stanhope.

have come down on a specific notice of motion, and were prepared to meet, to repel, or to explain, then, my noble friend—wrapping himself up in generalities, shrouding himself in mere vagueness, giving nothing tangible for an adversary to lay hold of—stated no single fact, made no one charge, which it was possible to meet and repel. I did, on a former occasion, think it right to observe that that was not the time for grappling with the charges made against the bill, or against those to whom its working was intrusted; but I pledged myself when the time came for discussing it, that I should be able to satisfy your lordships that all those charges were groundless; that all those stories admitted, if not of instant refutation, at least of satisfactory explanation; and that as the measure stood at first defensible upon the soundest principles—devised in the purest spirit of the constitution—framed in a deep regard for popular rights—conceived in the kindest spirit, not towards the landowners—whose estates are holden by those titles to which my noble friend has referred, and of which, in passing, let me just say, he used, unconsciously perhaps, but most accurately, the phrase, “the title-deeds by which your lordships claim to hold your estates;” for, under the old system of the poor laws, it would have been a claim, but a claim very soon severed from the possession—but it was not in a spirit of kindness towards the holders of those estates, either in this House or in the other House of Parliament, or towards the aristocracy, or any other rank in society possessing property, that this measure was conceived; it was—and I can speak it with confidence, for I know it from my own accurate recollection of the fact—conceived in a spirit, and in that spirit alone, of the kindest sympathy and fellow-feeling for the distresses of the poor themselves.

My lords, what was the history of that measure? Ever since I entered upon public life I had been one of those—(far wiser and better men in every way—men of far more influence in Parliament and in the country)—who lamented the state of gross ignorance in which the poor and working classes of this land had so long been held. We had endeavoured to improve them in many important respects; we had attempted, by planting schools, by improving the modes of instruction, and by various other means, to bring education—useful, moral, and religious—within their reach, and so improve, in that great particular, the lot of the labouring classes; but we found all our efforts vain—we found every attempt to better their condition worse than useless—we found it even doubted by many, who were, nevertheless, as warm friends of the poorer classes as ourselves, whether more harm than good was not done to the morals and comforts of the people by all the efforts we were thus making to mend their lot. We were met at every turn by the poor law; we were met by the deplorably corrupting effects of the abominable system which had grown up—I will not say (for I wish to avoid all debateable or controvertible matter)—I will not say, therefore, which had unavoidably grown up under the 43d of Elizabeth, the last of several acts passed in consequence of the destruction of the monasteries—I will say nothing of the original inherent faults of that act, or its essential lia-

bility to abuse from the provisions which it contained—I will not say one word as to the impossibility of that law continuing to work in the progress of society, or of its provisions being ill adapted to the rapid extension of wealth, and the increase of population—I will not speak of the necessity, under the changes incident to the natural progress of society, of the possessors of wealth becoming the prey, and the poor themselves the victims, of the abuses of that original act of Elizabeth. All this I pass by; it is incontrovertible matter; it is debatable ground—and I avoid it. All I maintain is, that a system of abuse had taken the place of the original system; that this original system, were it once as pure as if angels had devised it, had become tainted, and was, from beginning to end, a scheme debasing to one class of society, and hardening the hearts, as well as injuring the comforts of the rest. Such was the system under the old law; and to the consequences of that system our attention was necessarily directed. I joined with those who, in the years 1817 and 1818, soon after the education committee first sat in the other House of Parliament, anxiously turned their attention to the defects and to the administration of the poor laws. Attempts were made to inquire into and illustrate the working of the system, with a view to ascertain what might be done towards the removing all of its abuses, retaining what was good in it, and eradicating what was evil. The committees made some valuable reports to both Houses, containing very important information, especially one in 1829; but it was not until the beginning of the year 1832 that a proposition for inquiry, founded on the previously collected information, was acceded to—a proposition framed solely, and assented to solely, with this view, so help me, God! I cannot be mistaken; the impression is deep, it is everlasting in my mind—with the view, and with the view only, of benefiting the poor themselves. With this view we agreed to that inquiry; with this view to guide us, that inquiry we prosecuted; with this view to guide, we framed the provisions of the new act; relying upon the tendency of that act, and still influenced and only influenced by this view, we carried the measure through Parliament.

If, then, we have failed; if, instead of benefiting the poor, it has become their oppression; if it has been a measure to grind their faces, as we now hear it described—a measure to inflict misery upon them, to almost all but throw them into rebellion against us—if they are so incomparably worse off now than under the old system, the predecessor of our measure—I admit, fully and frankly, that mighty indeed has been our failure; for we have failed, utterly failed, in attaining the very object which our legislative and administrative labours had in contemplation! But, my lords, I am not conscious of our having failed, when I know that all the honest, virtuous, industrious poor,—all who have the courage to rely on their own exertions, and the honesty to live by the sweat of their own, and not of their poor neighbour's brow, are the fast friends of the system,—I am not to be driven from the hopes I originally entertained: first, because of the confidence I feel in knowing that we have not failed; and next, because of the

most sanguine expectations I entertain that our success, already great, will become gradually greater, and the more consolatory from the difficulties we have had to encounter. I am not to have that expectation forced from me merely by big words, whether used in petitions, or in county and other popular meetings, or in speeches in your lordships' house; or by large expressions of extensive application, and epithets not always very respectfully, or very felicitously, or very curiously selected, any more than they were very sparingly or economically applied. I am not, by all the excitement of vituperation, or by all the terror of declamatory periods, to be told,—and merely because told, and told without any proof whatever, or pretence of proof, to believe,—that this measure has been a complete failure; and that, although we meant it for the benefit of the poor, for raising their characters and increasing their comforts, yet they are, in all these respects, worse off now than they were before the year 1834.

If I were to follow my noble friend through the speech he has delivered, I should have to deal with somewhere about half of it, which might just as well have been the preamble to a speech upon any other subject, as to a speech upon the new poor law amendment bill. It reminded me of the introduction to Sallust's two histories, the one being an account of a very limited nature, a six weeks' conspiracy; and the other an account of a two months' war; and yet the introductory chapters to those works are such as might have been the preface to any one history which any man might have taken it into his head to write, or, indeed, to any one work of any kind upon any subject. The introductory part of my noble friend's speech was much like the generality of Sallust's prefaces, if it did not equal them in elegance and terseness of style.

Then came my noble friend to matters of more immediate bearing upon his subject, though his facts were not quite so authentic as the historian's. He began by telling your lordships that, instead of to-night—(when I really had flattered myself that I was to meet some grave charge against the bill itself, or some specific facts alleged against the commissioners, requiring to be answered or explained away—allegations against those commissioners, whose duties are not, I conceive, likely to be much facilitated by such discussions as the noble earl is fond of indulging in, any more than these discussions are likely to facilitate the working of this measure by making persons in the country lend their hands as guardians to the discharge of so delicate, important, and arduous a task—but)—instead of to-night bringing charges against the bill, or against those who had to work it, my noble friend has referred me to some indefinite period of time yet to come; and I now find that the present speech is not that definite accusation promised to be brought against the measure, nor yet that description of charge and specification of facts against the commissioners, which I stood prepared to meet; but only the first of a series of discourses, a kind of evening lecture which my noble friend has founded, and to which, in the exercise of his patronage, as the founder, he has collated himself, so that he is to be the first lecturer as well as founder; and that the discourse of the present evening is only to consist of mere

introductory matter. Now, is not this rather hard, and have not I rather a right to complain of the course taken by my noble friend? For I am now in this dilemma. If I keep my seat, and if my example is followed by those noble lords who entertain the same opinions with me upon the subject of the poor law amendment bill, what will happen? It will instantly be triumphantly proclaimed all over the country, by the various channels through which those who are discontented with the operation of this act disseminate their denunciations; and for the next two months it will be said, that "a most important and convincing, and (as the phrase would be) *we* have a right to say, a wholly unanswerable statement was brought forward by the noble earl, who is always known to be the true friend of the poor man, and who demonstrated, to the utmost satisfaction of all who heard him, and to the utter silence of all the cruel and cold-blooded friends of oppression, that all the charges alleged against this infamous new poor law bill were nothing more than true, nor less than proved." I am therefore bound to stand up and attempt the most difficult of all tasks—to meet a set of vague generalities by specific answers.

Now, first of all, my noble friend repeated the thousand times refuted assertion of the unconstitutional powers given by this bill—of the dictatorial office of the commissioners, who were sometimes called the three kings, sometimes the three dictators, as if kings were not powerful enough—sometimes the three despots—in plain terms, tyrants—men who cared nothing for the sufferings of the poor; or, at least, whose feelings were in the wrong direction, being on behalf of the rich, and who ground the poor man's face. Again, they were designated as "secret tyrants," whose code of laws no man could discover, for they had not promulgated it. Nay, the noble earl went so far as to say that this is "an illegal act."

EARL STANHOPE.—Hear, hear!

LORD BROUGHAM.—My lords, I have no doubt my noble friend is correct in using the epithet which he now, by his cheering, repeats; only I do not profess to understand him. I understand what a bad act is, I understand what a cruel act is, I understand what an oppressive act is; I know of many, I have opposed many; some I have withstood successfully, others I have failed in resisting; but I always understood what was meant by the words applied to describe them. I also understand what an unconstitutional act means—it is an act contrary to the general spirit of all other acts, and of the common law; but an illegal act passes my comprehension altogether, because, at all events, it is law: legal it must be; it may be bad law; it may be cruel law; it may be law that never ought to have been made, and that ought immediately to be abrogated; but still it is law—nay, the very complaint of my noble friend is, that it is law; if it were not law, he would have nothing to complain of. How, then, it can be illegal, I myself cannot understand, and I have heard nothing from my noble friend to help me over that difficulty. The right reverend prelate, whom I do not see present,* complained of its being a law that was

* Bishop of Exeter.

unconstitutional, and that gave arbitrary powers to certain functionaries, whom it called into existence and armed with new powers. Now, it is true that I, on a former occasion, accepted the challenge of that right reverend prelate, and made a sort of assignation with him; at least, I certainly intimated to the reverend prelate that I should be here; and I had hoped that the right reverend prelate, who has always taken a prominent part in these discussions, and who has levelled the charge against the bill of conferring unconstitutional and tyrannical powers, would have been present also. I had pledged myself to show that the bill has not gone further than many former acts have done; that it has not gone nearly so far as some; and that all those powers which it gives are constitutional, are consistent with the spirit of our laws, and are as little liable to be abused as any human laws can be, the execution of which must needs be intrusted to human hands—plans, the work of fallible beings, by fallible beings to be carried into effect. I am now in my place to redeem that pledge, and I have found one, and only one of my antagonists, my noble friend* before me. Of my noble friend's candour I am well satisfied; of his good intentions I am equally well aware. I charge the noble earl with no impropriety of conduct—I know his real motives—I know that he has brought the subject forward out of the honesty of his heart, and with the most perfect good will towards the working classes. If, as in my opinion they undoubtedly are, the noble earl's views upon the question should turn out to be the most incorrect, the most strangely erroneous, the most perversely wrong, the error is in no way attributable to the noble earl's heart—it is simply an error of the head. This is the only kind of being in the wrong that I attribute to the noble earl—whose intentions are beyond all suspicion.

Strong as his views are upon the subject, I think I shall be able to satisfy him that under the operation of the new poor law bill there has been no exercise of dictatorial power, no tyranny, no oppression; and further, that there is nothing extraordinary or unconstitutional in the powers conferred by the act, any more than there has been anything extraordinary or unconstitutional in the exercise of those powers. Take, in the first instance, the amount of patronage given by the new law. Is there anything novel, anything extraordinary, anything unconstitutional, or, to use the noble earl's own phrase, anything illegal, either in the amount of the patronage or the manner in which it is bestowed? Act after act may, already, be found in the statute book, wherein the amount of patronage is infinitely greater, and the control over the exercise of it infinitely less. Act after act may be found, in which fifty different offices, fifty different powers, are given to bodies of commissioners, whose authority is absolute, and whose rule extends to things general as well as local—to counties as well as parishes—to absolute elections as well as vestry meetings. Then, as to the appointment of the commissioners. Is it objected to them that they are appointed for too long or too indefinite a time? Act after act might be found in which commissioners,

* Earl Stanhope.

vested with infinitely greater and with wholly irresponsible powers, are appointed for life. There are the parochial acts of St. Andrew Holborn, of St. Pancras, of St. Leonard, Shoreditch: all these acts apply to extensive and very populous districts of the metropolis, and give to the commissioners, appointed under them, large powers, much patronage, great authority, important duties, extensive and valuable influence: for how long are they appointed? Every one of the commissioners appointed under those acts is appointed for and during the term of his natural life. Is that the case with the commissioners appointed under the new poor law act? No; instead of being appointed for life, they are only for five years; and now, at the end of a very short time, the present commissioners' period of service expires, and their reappointment or the appointment of their successors must depend entirely upon the will and the judgment of the responsible advisers of the Crown, in the event of the act being renewed by the parliament. So that anything less independent of the control of the ministry—less independent of Parliament—less independent of the country—than these commissioners are, by the tenure of their office, I am utterly incapable of imagining.

But then many complaints have been heard, much strength of language has been employed, a world of declamation has been poured forth, in condemnation of the extraordinary, unconstitutional, and unheard-of powers vested in the central board of commissioners. Now, the leading object of the act—the fundamental principle upon which it was based—was this:—its framers said to themselves, "It is necessary to simplify the management of the poor—it is necessary to reduce the management generally throughout the country, to something more of a system—it is necessary, therefore, that some useful, wholesome, and incontestably sound principles should be adopted, which shall possess as general and as pervading an influence as we can possibly give them; but it is also necessary that, in different situations, those principles, in their application, should be adapted to local peculiarities." What did the act do towards the attainment of this end? In the first place, it directed the appointment of one general board of commissioners, composed of men for whose appointment the ministry were responsible, and for whose conduct also they (the ministry) would be answerable to the Crown and to Parliament; and, in the second place, it authorized the appointment of local boards of guardians, composed of men not appointed by the Crown, not selected by the ministry, but chosen by the persons most immediately interested in the proper management of the local funds, namely, the rate-payers of the district over which the guardians were to preside. By this means a direct and powerful control was at once given to the parties most deeply interested over the local authorities, by whom the provisions of the act were to be carried into effect, relating to the management and relief of the poor; whilst a superintending power, as to the adoption and observance of the general principles of the act, was left to the central board of commissioners. The rules that were found to succeed in one place, were, by the influence of the central board, ex-

tended to others; when, in several places, experience showed them to be fit, the power of the commissioners enabled other places to benefit by that experience; but it did not follow that they were in every instance to be wholly, or in any instance arbitrarily adopted. They might be modified—indeed it was the duty of the local authorities, of the board of guardians, so to modify them as to render them easily applicable to the local diversities and peculiar circumstances of the district in which they were to be applied. I really do think that no system ever devised by the wit of man was less deserving of the charge of being dictatorial, unconstitutional, despotic, tyrannical, or oppressive.

Independent of the ministerial responsibility to the Crown and to Parliament for the appointment of the central board of commissioners—independent of the check which the rate-payers have it always in their power to put upon the local boards of guardians—it is to be remembered that the proceedings of both boards—of the board of commissioners as well as of the board of guardians—are also liable to the further control of public discussion, that great safeguard of our liberties, that great preventive of all abuses. And in no part of the country has this right of public discussion, as applied to the administration of the new poor law, been sparingly applied. Meetings have been held in every direction, and no act spared, no misrepresentation withheld, no clamour suppressed, that could tend to mislead and inflame the public mind upon this important subject. Do I complain of this? No. These public meetings, these public discussions, have been most ample, most frequent; therefore, if there had been, on the part of the commissioners sitting at Somerset House, or on the part of the board of guardians administering the law in any part of the country, or on the part of the assistant commissioners, or of the relieving officers from the Land's End to John-o'-Groat's House, any tendency to abuse the powers with which any one of them is vested, it would have been trumpeted forth in the newspapers, proclaimed at public meetings, and in this and the other House of Parliament have been made the ground, not of a motion for papers specifying the number of petitions which had been presented upon the subject—which now appears to be all that the noble earl (in this respect resembling the mountain in labour) intends to move for—but the ground for a straightforward, intelligible, constitutional, and legal mode of proceeding—the ground of a motion for the appointment of a committee to consider of the operation of the poor law act; and to examine upon oath the witnesses who came to support specific charges. That no tangible cases of abuse can be proved, or even stated, I am, perhaps, not entitled absolutely to assert; but this, at least, I may be allowed to remark, that it would have been much more creditable to those, in this House, who oppose the measure, if they had brought forward some specific cases, instead of dealing only in vague generalities; and that it would have been infinitely more creditable to those who have affected to produce particular cases out of doors, where they could not be met by the defenders of the measure, if they had not adventured to produce those charges which,

as often as ventured upon, were found, when they came to be sifted, utterly destitute of foundation—found, without one single exception, to crumble into dust the moment they were touched—found uniformly to vanish before the first steady glance of investigation.

Before I come to any of the cases which have been so mentioned, and so proved to be groundless—for, though the noble earl has not much adverted to them, they have been made the subject of common talk and constant comment, for some time past, in places where it was impossible for any one to meet them and put them down—before I come to these cases, I wish to offer a very few observations in reference to the charges made against the act itself. I feel justified in taking this course, because we, the friends of the measure, have been placed not upon a fair trial, but in a position exposed to all manner of attack and misrepresentation for months and months past, without the power of saying one word in our defence. I avail myself, therefore, of the present as the first convenient opportunity that has been afforded of showing the utter groundlessness of the thousand-and-one charges brought not only against the act itself, but against all those by whom it was propounded and defended. First, as to the unprecedented nature of the powers conferred by it, I undertake to show that infinitely greater power has been, in all periods of our legislation, conferred by other acts. I will drag forth before your lordships, from their original and perpetual obscurity, statutes giving infinitely greater powers, not to a known, respectable, and highly responsible body of three commissioners, the limited number increasing the responsibility of each—not to men every one of whose acts must be rigorously scrutinized and publicly canvassed—not to men whose names and persons are universally known, and who can do no one thing in the dark or in a corner—not to men whose conduct must of necessity be known to all the country, instead of being limited to a particular parish in a particular district—not to men subject to the inspection of Parliament, and under the superintendence of the responsible advisers of the Crown—but to twenty-five men in one class, and twenty-five other men in another class of society, all of whom were subject to no other control, or responsible to any higher authority than their own will and pleasure. Such are the powers given by the parochial act of St. Leonard's, Shoreditch, now and for twenty years past in full operation, but never once complained of by those who call this law dictatorial and arbitrary. Under that act the commissioners, responsible to no one but themselves, have the power of framing diet tables for the workhouse, and of refusing relief out of the workhouse: powers which, in the new poor law act, were described as novel, unheard of, tyrannical, despotic, oppressive, and wholly unprecedented in the laws or usages of England. Then there is the Oxford act, under which the guardians and other officers are obliged to serve, or to suffer certain penalties. Suppose such a provision to have been made in the new poor law act, what would have been said? Would not men have exclaimed, "Was ever anything like this tyranny? Here are we, who abhor and detest your measure, obliged, under heavy penalties, to join with you

in the exercise of powers which we hold to be despotic and tyrannical, as well as unconstitutional, and even (as the noble earl says) illegal." But there is no such arbitrary enactment in the poor law bill. Under the Oxford act, the commissioners or the guardians are empowered to take up all disorderly persons and beggars. Now, beggary is poverty; and, says the noble earl, poverty by the law of England has never yet been treated as a crime. The Oxford act, however, makes it punishable with imprisonment. Then, astonished, as if he had discovered in the new act some novel principle, some rule never before known to the law, he exclaims, "What! was there ever anything like this? was there ever anything so monstrous, so tyrannical as this? Why, under the provisions of the act, poverty, for the first time in England, is treated like crime." But the noble earl is mistaken; for, says the Oxford act, "if beggars shall be found, they are to be kept at work till they have reimbursed the union; which, if they cannot do, they may be kept to hard work in the house of correction for thirty days." As to the punishment of thirty days' imprisonment, much, perhaps, needs not be said; that infliction may be thought moderate enough: but then, during the period of imprisonment, the Oxford act further directs, that "they be three times whipped." Now, however, it is an unheard-of thing, we are told, that the poor law commissioners should say to a man, "You are able-bodied; go and work; or if you cannot get work, come and take the pot-luck (as it were) of the workhouse;" being as much as to say, "Come and be comfortably lodged, and comfortably clothed, and take for your diet that which our comfortable table affords." This is unparalleled and unheard of. But, says the Oxford act,—which, as your lordships will perceive, is infinitely more tender, infinitely more merciful and benevolent in its provisions—"If any man shall beg, being poor, he shall be taken up and compelled to work, to reimburse the union; and if he cannot work, then he shall be imprisoned thirty days, and during that time be three times whipped, once in every ten days." Is this all, my lords? Is there no other power given under the Oxford act by which the workhouse may be supplied? Yes; there is a power unknown to our act, unheard of in our days—a power of search; a power to search for the unhappy, the wretched, and the unfortunate, to tear them from their homes, and drag them off to the workhouse, without ceremony and without inquiry, as if they were criminals; a power given in no instance except for the arrest of persons guilty of crime, or contempt of court, which is *quasi* a crime; a power to break open the outer door of the dwellings of the poor, and to compel such as are found within them to go to the workhouse, whether they like it or not. Nor is this all. I remember, very well, the late Sir James Graham, for many years member for Carlisle, who, from his great knowledge of the business of Parliament, and his obliging disposition, introduced, perhaps, more private bills than any other man of his day—I remember, very well, his bringing in a Lincolnshire workhouse bill. I remember, too, that Sir Samuel Romilly, having at the moment, I suppose, nothing else to do, but unwilling, like all great men,

to leave a moment unemployed, accidentally took up the bill, and came forward to oppose it, having discovered that it gave a power of whipping all paupers in the house. How was that objection met? Was any wonder expressed—any indignation manifested? Not at all. “Oh!” said the supporters of the bill, “this power of whipping is the commonest thing in the world; there is nothing to be alarmed at in that; we can show you precedents;” and in a trice they produced half a dozen acts, in all of which the governors were empowered to whip the poor. In short, it was considered mere prudery on the part of Sir Samuel Romilly to raise any objection to so very reasonable and so very ordinary an exercise of parochial authority. I only mention this to show your lordships that when people talk of the tyrannical, despotic, oppressive, and, above all, the unprecedented powers conferred by the new act, there is nothing contained in it, from the first line to the last word, that can be compared with the severity of preceding measures.

As a further illustration of this point, I may refer to what has occurred in some places under Gilbert’s act, passed, as your lordships will remember, in 1782. Mr. Hawley, one of the poor law commissioners, upon visiting the workhouse of one of the unions formed under that act, was struck by hearing the clank of chains in one of the inner courts; and upon arriving at that part of the establishment, he actually found persons pacing about the court manacled, and having also their ankles bound in fetters. Expressing his astonishment, and inquiring the cause of this, the master of the workhouse coolly replied, “We find it necessary; it is impossible in any other way to prevent them breaking bounds and running away.” All this is in evidence—in evidence that has been printed, and to which I would fain direct your lordships’ attention, although I will not now trouble you by reading it at length. But your lordships will be pleased to observe, and my noble friend will allow me to remind him, that these things cannot be done under the present law; that these things are not done under the present law; or, if done, that they are illegal, though the law itself is not illegal. These things are all now prohibited, and if committed, are most severely punishable.

I think I have now redeemed my pledge when I told your lordships I would show that the powers conferred by this act were not unprecedented, and that they were not more tyrannical or more oppressive than the powers which, under other acts, had existed, ay, and been exercised, long before. If it were necessary, I could enter into a multitude of details in further illustration of this point; but I think I have stated enough to convince your lordships that this measure is not so terribly despotic as it has been represented, and that it does not deal with the poor half so severely as other acts. From the beginning to the end, it confers not one harsh, not one cruel, not one oppressive or despotic power, either upon the commissioners or the assistant commissioners, upon the guardians or the relieving officers.

Then, my noble friend dwells at length upon the great hardship of there being no out-door relief. My lords, there is not a more ordinary,

but there is not, at the same time, a more inexcusable misrepresentation than that which affirms the total refusal of out-door relief under the new system. I assert that the act does not prohibit out-door relief. Further, I maintain, that the commissioners have never prohibited out-door relief. I venture to assert, and I challenge a contradiction to the assertion, that all the boards of guardians, all the assistant commissioners, all the relieving officers have allowed, do continue to allow, and must, if they act up to the provisions of the statute, continue freely to allow, out-door relief. One sort of out-door relief, I admit, they do not allow, as a general rule; but even to that there are exceptions. Able-bodied workmen,—men who could work if there were work for them to do, and in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, the fact always turns out, that there is work to be had if there are men who choose to ask for it, and to do it; but “those who seek not, neither shall they find;” these men, I admit, are refused out-door relief, but they are offered the relief of the workhouse if they choose to enter it. And here I complain, as I have just reason to do, of the gross and fraudulent misrepresentations,—misrepresentations amounting to falsehoods and utter fabrications—which I have seen, and seen with amazement, of the conduct of the commissioners, the boards of guardians, and the relieving officers in the treatment of the aged and infirm poor. I have seen it stated, that they will not give to the aged out-door relief, but compel them, in every instance, to come into the workhouse. That statement is utterly unfounded, utterly false. If persons be infirm, be it from disease or natural malformation, from incapacity, bodily or mental, or from the advance of years and the decrepitude of old age, they receive, under this act, out-door relief; ay, and receive it more certainly and more liberally than if the act had not been passed. In some cases, the relief administered under the act has gone even further; for so great has been the desire of the commissioners and of the boards of guardians not to hold too tight the power of refusing out-door relief, that when an able-bodied man, though only five-and-thirty years of age, and in the prime of life, but burdened with two or three children who are labouring under some natural infirmity, such as deafness, dumbness, or blindness, has applied, the commissioners have acted upon what may be regarded as the equitable construction of the word “infirm,” employed in the act, and have given to such persons, though neither infirm, nor diseased, nor aged, out-door relief, in consideration of the infirmities of their family. Then, have I not a right to complain of the statements which have been made? Have I not a right to ask whether a misrepresentation more gross or more foul could possibly be fancied—could possibly be conjured up by the malignant imagination of any man—than that out-door relief was never given, and that the aged and infirm were compelled to betake themselves to the workhouse?

I have hitherto passed over the subject of medical assistance, because my noble friend says he shall reserve it for the next head of his series of lectures. I therefore will pass it over also, only observing by the way—and the observation applies to the whole subject of the me-

dical relief administered under the act—that I have not observed the complaints upon this head to come from the poor themselves, but from the medical men who are required to attend them. The medical men certainly appear to be very sensitive upon the subject, infinitely more sensitive than their patients; for it will be found, by asking those who have inquired, or those who have been engaged in administering the act, that the medical assistance now afforded is much better, much more certain, and much more regular, than it was previous to the passing of the new law. This, indeed, it is exactly, that the medical men complain of. They can no longer draw their money for doing nothing. Under the operation of the new law, they must work for their pay; therefore they say, “the pay is too little, and the work too much.” However that may be, certain it is, that since the act has come into force, more has been accomplished in the way of affording medical relief to the poor than was ever done under the old system. Allowances, large and liberal, have always, I am happy to say, been made by the boards of guardians, with the entire approval of the commissioners, both assistant and central, in cases where either disease or infirmity has required the substitution of better food. In all such cases a generous diet (to use the medical phrase) has been allowed; meat far beyond the ordinary rules of diet has been given, and in many unions wine to a large extent has been provided. Here let us only pause for a moment to ask whether it is fair that those who have so exerted themselves—who under the guidance of such kindly feelings towards their poorer fellow-creatures, have shown themselves so little regardful of trouble or of cost—whether it is fair toward them to reiterate, day after day, the cry of their starving, grinding, oppressing, and imprisoning the poor, and withholding from them all those medical comforts which (above all things) under the old system they had enjoyed? Is this fair, when we find that under the new law the poor have incontestably more of medical comfort—that larger sums, by a great deal, are expended upon them—that better and more regular attendance is secured to them—and that in no one single instance has a case been specified in which there has been any defect in the medical attendance in any one workhouse, in any one union, throughout the whole country?

I will not pursue this point further; but allow me to ask whether the tone which has been adopted by some men upon this and other subjects connected with the new law is a wholesome or a proper tone? Is it a tone that can in any way tend to improve the condition of the people, or to place them in a better situation? Does it tend to reconcile men's minds to a law to say that it is bad, oppressive, cruel, unconstitutional—a law which (to use the phrase employed by the noble earl) did not deserve to be called a law? Why, then, do you not bring in a bill to have it repealed? Instead of night after night coming down here with charges which you will not specify, or attacks upon individuals whom you will not name, for things which you will not particularize, upon authority to which you will not give us the means of referring;—instead of coming forward with stories of abuses in

places which you will not venture to point out, not even so far as to name the county in which they might be found—why do you not come forward boldly and manfully, and demand the total repeal of the whole measure? But you have shrunk from that plain, intelligible, and manly course; night after night you put forward your unsupported statements; night after night you endeavour to excite a prejudice against the act, and against those by whom it has been administered; but now, when the hour of trial is come—when those whom you have attacked, indoors and out of doors, in your daily journals, in your occasional publications, in your public meetings, and in your declamatory speeches, for the last six months—when these men came forward to meet charges brought against them in places and at times when it was impossible for them to reply or to explain—when these men enter the arena and defy you to the proof—then you wrap yourselves up in vague generalities, talking, at random, of Mr. Pitt—of the “pilot that weathered the storm”—ballasting the ship, too, you might just have added with five hundred millions of debt, without which the poor would have now found it far easier to get employment;—when the hour of trial comes, you shroud yourselves in these fruitless, vain, inapplicable generalities, and leave us to guess, to beat the wind, and to conjecture, in the best way we can, what is the charge upon which, without being tried, we have been condemned in the face of the whole country, sentenced to general execration, and delivered over to the authority and vengeance of the popular arm!

The noble earl* is not the only person who has done these things; but he, I am bound to say, pure as his motives may be, holds a very high place amongst those who in Parliament have assisted, encouraged, and comforted the evil-doers out of doors. I have said that wherever a charge has been made, if it was specific, it has been refuted; certainly, in each instance, an immediate investigation has been undertaken, and great readiness manifested to ascertain the correctness of every particular of the statement. I will give your lordships a sample of the candour and fairness with which the commissioners have demeaned themselves, and of the readiness and promptitude with which they have challenged investigation wherever an instance of abuse has been referred to. You will, at the same time, see if they have been met with similar candour and fairness by their accusers. A reverend gentleman, whom I will name if any body wishes me to do so, though the circumstances I am about to mention redound so little to his credit that I think your lordships would rather his name should be kept back—a minister, as I understand, of the established church, was addressed by the commissioners on the 11th of February 1837, in consequence of his having stated in a letter, to which his name was attached, a melancholy story of the cruel treatment of a poor cripple and his mother in a union workhouse. Mr. Chadwick, the able and intelligent secretary to the commissioners, addressed a letter to the reverend gentleman in consequence of that statement,

* Earl Stanhope.

requesting to be informed of the workhouse in which the alleged maltreatment had occurred, and giving an assurance that the fullest investigation should be made. All that Mr. Chadwick entreated was, that the reverend gentleman would state where he got his information, what the names of the parties were, and in what part of the kingdom the circumstance had occurred. No reply was given to this most reasonable request. This information I have direct from the board of commissioners.

EARL STANHOPE.—I think, perhaps, I might save the noble and learned lord some trouble by stating that an answer has been given to that letter. I can show the noble and learned lord the reply in print.

LORD BROUGHAM.—This I know, that no direct reply was sent to the commissioners. These are their own words: "The commissioners received no reply to the said letter."

EARL STANHOPE.—But a reply has been printed.

LORD BROUGHAM.—If so, there must be a reply which was never sent to the commissioners; for they complain that no answer was sent to them. But I need not trouble your lordships with disputing this case; there are plenty of others, and I go to one of them. A gallant general has stated some very gross cases of misconduct and abuse as having happened in the Bourn union, of which he, being chairman of the quarter sessions, was, *ex officio*, one of the guardians. When serious statements came from such a quarter, it was very natural for the guardians, his colleagues, to feel alarmed at them. They, accordingly, wrote a letter to the gallant officer, begging of him, in very civil terms, to enter a little into particulars. The letter ran in these words: "I have the honour to address you, by direction of the board of guardians of this union, requesting you will furnish me, for their information, with the names and parishes of the parties whose cases you are reported to have brought before the public, at a meeting lately held at the Crown and Anchor Tavern, London, as the board are led to infer, from the whole tenor of the published report, that the cases referred to are supposed to have occurred in this union. I am further directed to inform you, that it is the anxious wish of the board to furnish, on their part, every explanation on this or any similar occasion." The answer was this:—"I beg to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 22d instant, but I must decline giving any answer to the inquiry of the board of guardians at Bourn. I feel there would be no end to this subject, if I was to enter into explanation with every board of guardians to whom I may allude when expressing my dislike of the new poor law. At the same time, I thank those at Bourn for the offer of explanation on their part, which I will avail myself of when I see occasion." So that the logic of the gallant officer was this:—"I charge a board of guardians to which I belong myself, of which, *ex officio*, I am a permanent member; I accuse them of cruel conduct, but in general terms; they write to me for particulars, and express a desire to enter into an investigation of the matter; I receive their letter, and I say, 'Oh! it would be an endless job if I were to enter into an explanation with every board of guardians in the kingdom to which I may allude when

expressing my dislike of the new poor law bill.' " Such is the logic of the gallant general, totally forgetting that the circumstances in which he had been called upon to explain by the Bourn board of guardians, were entirely different from any others that could possibly occur in which he was himself concerned, because he had impunged the conduct of a board of guardians near to whom he lived, and of whom he was himself one. Now, he could not live near and belong to every board of guardians in the kingdom. Again; he had impunged the conduct of a board of guardians, of which he was himself, *ex officio*, a member, being the chairman of the quarter sessions. Now, he could not be chairman of the quarter sessions of every district in the country—could not be, *ex officio*, a member of the board of guardians in every union in the country. Therefore, what mischief or inconvenience he could sustain from answering the letter of the Bourn board of guardians, his own colleagues as well as his near neighbours, where the whole matter would have begun and ended, I confess I am utterly at a loss to understand. But one circumstance I am quite aware of, and it may furnish a key to otherwise inexplicable conduct. The gallant general was the candidate or the member for a Lancashire borough, where great excitement had been raised against the poor law; and no doubt, all attacks upon all commissioners and all boards of guardians bore a high premium in that borough at the time when the convenient speech was made, and the inconvenient explanation was refused.

I might mention many other cases in which there has been a similar reluctance to enter into particulars, on the part of those who have shown great alacrity in bringing forward general charges; but I confine myself to a few. There is one case which has been especially mentioned,—mentioned in very strong terms,—and it is, no doubt, of a touching nature. It was published in a newspaper; and the editor said he had it from a very old and valued correspondent, who had never deceived him before. As soon as the publication appeared, a letter was addressed to the editor, requesting that this old and valued correspondent might be made known, as there was no truth whatever in the statement he had published. The editor declined to do this, but said he would make inquiry of his correspondent; and a few days afterwards, a very civil answer appeared, couched in something like these terms:—"Our old and valued correspondent, who never deceived us before, being unable or unwilling to substantiate his charge, we have no objection to make the *amende honourable*, and to publish a contradiction of the charge." Very well; but how did they do it? The original charge was headed "Horrible Atrocity of the New Poor Law;" was printed throughout, in a large type; and was placed in a prominent part of the newspaper. Not so the contradiction. That, modestly, retiringly, like a sensitive plant shrinking from the touch, fled into a remote, obscure, humble, sequestered corner, and there by the fair river of print that traversed all the margin-valley, there it lingered unheeded, unseen, and wasting on the desert air that sweetness of truth which, for the first time, it shed upon the ground hostile to the new law.

In the month of July last, a gentleman, very well known in Yorkshire, paraded a letter in the newspapers, in which some strong assertions were made with respect to the working of the new poor law bill. The editor of the newspaper had no blame in this, except that he might have inquired a little more accurately as to the means of information possessed by his correspondent. The statement published in the newspapers, on the 11th of July last, was in these terms:—"A clergyman, a neighbour of mine, told me the other day, that two friends of his from Cambridge had told him the following anecdote: at a union workhouse in that neighbourhood, a labourer, his wife, and children, had been confined; they were as a matter of course separated. The poor fellow was, at last, tired out; he was 'tested' as the Duke of Richmond would term it." I dare say my noble friend never made use of such an expression. But the statement continues:—"At length he thought he had better be half-starved at liberty, than half-starved in prison. He gave notice to the governor, that he, his wife, and children, would leave (meaning, I suppose, leave the house; but our good old English will soon be written out of use by these penmen), and that he would try to obtain work. The governor said, 'You cannot take your wife out; you and your children may go.'—"Not take my wife?" exclaimed the poor man, 'why not?'—"We buried her three weeks ago," replied the gaoler." Now, I must say, that a more shocking story than this, if it were true, could not possibly be brought under the consideration of the public. But in the first place, it was not very likely that a man confined in the same workhouse with his wife, and separated from her only during the night, should be ignorant of her death three weeks after it had occurred. In fact the statement was not true. However, it had the effect of causing an immediate inquiry to be made by the commissioners, whose praiseworthy course is, whensoever they see a specific charge, to make an instant investigation of the particulars. They did so in this instance; and the result was, in all respects, similar to that which had been obtained in every other instance where similar statements and similar charges had been made.

THE EARL OF RADNOR.—Name the party who made the statement.

LORD BROUGHAM.—I am now alluding to a statement which had been put forward by Mr. Oastler, the gentleman who contested the representation of Huddersfield, and who, though mistaken, violent, hardly of sound mind upon the subject of the poor law, I believe, at heart, is an exceedingly humane and benevolent man. The inquiry in this instance, as in all the previous ones, ended in the commissioners being referred from one person to another, and from one place to another, until at last it turned out that the circumstance complained of had not taken place either in the county of Cambridge or its neighbourhood. The commissioners reported to Lord John Russell, that all the answer which they had been able to receive, was, "that the report was originally communicated to some friends of a gentleman at Huddersfield, named Kettlewell, by a person in Lepton, near Huddersfield; who, being further questioned, says he heard it from his brother, who had it from a friend, to whom it had been related by a

pauper, who said he had been in the same house, but whose name and abode he confessed he did not know." So that there was a statement made to one person by another person not named, who had it from his brother not named, to whom it had been told by a pauper, whose name and abode were not known. Certainly, very satisfactory evidence, the hearsay being only six deep! And on such authority has the new poor law been condemned. In fact, there is not a word of truth in all the statements which have been made against the measure; there is not a shadow of evidence in support of those statements.

Undoubtedly, there is no lack of assertion; there has been no deficiency of vituperation; there is no scarcity of censure of the system, and of those by whom it is conducted; ay, of vehemence, furious, blood-thirsty reprehension; and that not by laymen, but by ministers of the gospel of peace. I feel persuaded that I shall petrify your lordships by that which I am about to state. It is difficult to believe that any being in a human form could utter such sentiments, in such language, as have been uttered by a clergyman, not of the church of England, certainly, but by a clergyman,—the Rev. Mr. Stephens, at a meeting held at Hartsteadmoor, to petition for the repeal of the poor law. This is a report of the proceedings in a Leeds paper:—"Mr. Stephens then read extracts from Magna Charta, and said, that if it had been passed without blood, it should be reinstated without blood; but if blood had been shed, blood should not be wanting to bring it back again. Sooner than sit down with this bill, they would light up the tocsin of anarchy." Light up the tocsin of anarchy! The reverend gentleman seemed to consider a tocsin to be a torch. He had, probably, heard of cursing by "bell, book, and candle," and had confounded the first with the last; of the second he seems to know nothing. He then proceeded,—“they would light up the tocsin of anarchy, and the glory of England should depart. Sooner than suffer his wife or child to be torn from him, he would plunge a dagger into the heart of the man who attempted it. They were not there to reason, or to argue, or to amplify on the question, but they were determined not to have the bill either in whole or in part, either in principle or in practice, either in its head or in its tail. They would neither have the sting in its tail, nor the teeth in its jaws, but they would plunge a sword into the entrails, and dig a pit as deep as hell, and, out of the whig filth, and rottenness, and detestable and damnable doctrines and practices, they would tumble it all into the pit. He would never pay taxes towards that bill. If it was to be the law, he would be outlawed; and if it was to be a law for the poor, then he would say, by the God who made the poor, there should be no law for the rich.” At another meeting, the same reverend gentleman is reported to have thus spoken:—"He said what he did, not from the impulse or whim of the moment, for he knew there was a government spy in the room, and if he did not take the words down, he knew they would appear in the public press, and that Lord John Russell would have the opportunity of seeing them. He would say, let them have no factories' regulation bill alone, they must fight for both bills

at once. If they would not grant them, he would say 'Down with the mills!' " On another occasion, the same individual talked of those "institutions which were once the pride of the country, the envy of surrounding nations, and the admiration of the world," as having been "destroyed by the infernal poor law bill, and its fiendish supporters."—"I ask," says the reverend gentleman, "the rich to pause: I ask, what will be the effect of the law in Manchester? If you receive it, you must give up the book of God from your pulpit, and the prayer-book from your reading-desk; they cannot stand together! for the devil is not more opposed to the Almighty than is the new poor law to his holy word." Surely such language as that, uttered by a Christian minister, if not actually blasphemous, was, in the highest degree, unholy, and irreverent. He proceeded to say,—“And there is another old law, which declares that no man is a felon for taking that which he needs to satisfy his hunger.” There never was any such law. There may be extenuating circumstances in a robbery; but a robbery is and always was a punishable act, whatever the urgent necessity that prompted or that drove to it. After exclaiming,—“I tell Lord John that the poor law is the law of devils, and that it ought to be, and will be, resisted to death;” and, after uttering a great deal more of very inflammatory matter, Mr. Stephens went on:—“In my town of Ashton”—Now, I know Ashton. It is an extensive place. The inhabitants are very ingenious and industrious, but they are very excitable, and they are very numerous; and as I have already observed, most excitement exists against the new poor law where it is least known. “In my town of Ashton,” said Mr. Stephens, “when March comes, we are determined on our course. Let the man who dare do it accept the office of guardian; we are determined, ‘an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth,’ man for man. It shall be blood for blood, so help us God and our country.” Now, I ask your lordships if I was guilty of any exaggeration, when I said that the language which I was about to quote would make your blood run cold?

Such gross misrepresentations, both of the principle and of the details of the law, are most reprehensible, proceeding from any man; still more are they reprehensible when the speaker clothed his sentiments in language such as no human lips ought to utter; above all are they reprehensible when such gross misrepresentations, couched in such terms, proceed from a minister of the gospel of peace, who borrows his illustrations from the Bible, the reading-desk, and the pulpit; who, with abominable profanity, perverts the doctrine of “peace on earth and good will towards men,” to the vile purpose of exciting his hearers to riot and insurrection—of making them actually slake, by murder, the thirst of blood which his exhortations have raised; and who, as in religious matters his influence might perhaps be great, no doubt hopes that in secular affairs it would not be small. One writer in a provincial journal, described the poor law commission as “a cruel cerberus; a three-headed monster; a devil-king over the inmates of the national prison:” and a gentleman, whose name it is unnecessary to mention, in language at least not inferior in violence to any which I

have hitherto quoted, uttered the following sentiments:—"He would consider himself disgraced if he had travelled two hundred miles for so paltry and ridiculous a purpose as petitioning what was called the Parliament; and recommended the meeting so to act as to bring the Parliament on its knees before them, by standing with the petition in one hand, and a pistol in the other, the finger holding the trigger to assist the petition." If any of these misguided individuals, after hearing these abominable doctrines, couched in such execrable language—after hearing from his spiritual instructor that it should be "blood for blood"—after hearing from another, but a temporal adviser, that he ought to apply to Parliament "with a petition in one hand and a pistol in the other," were to commit some atrocious outrage, the crime could hardly be called his. My lords, I have great confidence in the good sense of the people of this country, for I have long known and admired their character. I know their instinctive love of the law, and the horror with which they shrink from any breach of it. I know that they may be treated with great cruelty, that they may be subjected to much oppression, that they may be deeply wounded in their dearest interests, and tortured in their most tender feelings, often without a murmur, almost always without lifting a hand in violation of the law. This I know of the people from my own observation of them, and from living among them. I respect their loyalty, I respect their kind and peaceful disposition, I respect their almost invincible repugnance to any infraction of the law, any act of violence, anything that smells of blood. It is therefore, my lords, that I feel the utmost confidence in their good conduct, the most perfect assurance that their disposition is to keep the peace.

But, my lords, if I am so sanguine in my expectations—if I so entirely trust them that I do not apprehend any evil consequences will result from incitements such as those which I have been reading to your lordships, I am sure it is not because I believe that no pains have been taken to produce those evil consequences; it is not because I believe that the persons to whom I have been referring have not done their best to induce the people to violate the law—to depart from their peaceful habits; it is not because I have any doubt that such was the intention of the wretches who attempted to practise upon the people, that they anxiously sought for tumult and confusion, and wilfully kindled a flame which they desired to see quenched in blood—I am tranquil upon the probable result only—but because I depend on the honesty and good feeling, founded on the intelligence, of the people themselves; and expect that they will be above falling a prey to all the detestable arts used for seducing them to their dishonour and ruin. But what will the people of England say, generally, when they become acquainted with the fact, that it is just in proportion as the inhabitants of any district know nothing of this law that they express their dissatisfaction with it—that wherever its provisions are not applied, there the greatest efforts are made to excite a ferment against it; and that, on the contrary, just in proportion as the law is tried, it makes friends, and day after day converts those who were, in the first instance, sus-

picious and jealous of it, into its admirers and supporters? My lords, when the people of England come to reflect upon this fact, I am convinced that their good sense, that their rational habits, that their naturally peaceful dispositions, their sound understanding and increasing information, will act as perfect safeguards to them against the false, misguided, and slanderous accusers of the law. I trust, therefore, that these men have had their day. I trust that henceforward their misrepresentations will be refuted as soon as they are uttered. There is one thing, also, which I will venture, in addition, to say—that, as there is no one of the charges made against the new system to which the old system was not subject in a tenfold degree, so there are, in many cases, no abuses even alleged against the new system, which kind of abuses was not everywhere found abundantly to exist in the old. Of all those scenes which it wrung our hearts to contemplate five years ago, none are any longer to be seen, affecting the eye and bathing it in tears. I can no longer tell your lordships of any young, strong, and able-bodied labourer preferring idleness, with the parish allowance of 3s. 6d. a-week, to the 10s. a-week which he might have made by working. But I have misstated the case. It was not from the parish that such an idler obtained his weekly dole; it was from the virtuous and industrious poor, who earned their bread by the sweat of their brow, and whose recompense it was to be exposed to robbery, to be compelled to support the lazy and vicious in idleness. Did I say in idleness? No; but in riot, pillage, and fraud. At the period to which I allude, our hopes of a reformed system of poor relief were almost crushed by the stories which we were constantly told of the conduct of multitudes of the labouring classes. Boatmen of Kent and Sussex—men who, until the abuses had crept into the old poor law and unmanned them, thought no weather too hard for the exercise of their calling, and never shrunk from the peril of wind and wave when engaged in saving the lives of the wrecked, or in transacting the ordinary business of their hardy lives, any more than when engaged in running a cargo of smuggled goods—even such men, seven or eight years ago, were accustomed, in the tempestuous seasons of the year, to say, “We will go now and see what the parish may give us; they must keep us; we will take their five or six shillings a-week, and wait for good weather before we tempt sea again.” No such things are now seen: the new poor law cannot be charged with effecting any such corruption of character, with destroying the love of industry and of honest independence, which was the glory of our forefathers. Nor do we now see able-bodied men allowed by the parish sixteen shillings a-week for a limited portion of labour, while twelve shillings was all that could be obtained by similar men not paid by the parish, and who devoted the whole of the day to their employers. In 1831, hundreds of individuals besieged the relieving officers, complaining that they could not earn ten or twelve shillings from the parish, unless they worked as hard as the industrious labourer who made no application at all for relief. Nor do we ever hear now of facts exhibiting so degrading a deficiency in common sense and common feeling as that one honest and well-disposed woman, who for

weeks and months abstained from receiving parish relief, preferring to support herself by her own independent exertions, was at length compelled to give in by the clamours of the other inhabitants of the village, who shamed her out of her good resolution, she being, till then, the only one not upon the parish. Recollecting all these things, my lords, I ask you whether we were too vehement in our denunciation of the abuses of the old system? Did we lament too deeply the wide-spread evils—evils tending to destroy the good sense, the honesty, and the independent spirit of the people of England—the existence of which was proved by the gross abuses I have just cited? Before the introduction of the new system of poor laws, everything was monstrous, everything was unnatural, everything was intolerable, in the manner in which relief was given to the indigent. Practices which set all reason and all principle at defiance had grown up to a fearful height. Separating the workmen from the work, severing wages from labour, impiously and vainly reversing the original curse, by teaching men to earn their bread by the sweat of their neighbour's brow—those practices, while they introduced the most intolerable corruption, were fraught with the most fatal consequences to social order; they threatened anarchy and violence; they opened the door to every description of profligacy and dissoluteness and crime. At that period no man, however undeserving, need want who would resort to the parish for aid. Men who prided themselves, and justly prided themselves, on their independence—men who nobly supported themselves by honest industry, were taxed to support every idle, debauched, and good-for-nothing profligate in their neighbourhood. The noble earl told us, in the language of Scripture, “to look at the fruits of the tree before you judged it.” I am sure, if we look at the fruits of the poor law, we must admit that they were bitter to the taste, though certainly they were not “fair to the sight,” for nothing could be more hideous.

My lords, I hope we may be said to have passed safely through the first stage of the operation of the new measure. Under the operation of the old system, it was impossible that society could have long existed. All the better portion of the population were ground down by the poor rates. It was anxiety for the stability, nay, for the very existence of society, in which the present law originated. The money saved by it was only an inferior consideration. If the noble earl can show—which, however, I am persuaded he cannot—that the statement of a saving by the new measure of two or three millions a-year is a fallacy, that not a penny is saved—nay, that more is expended now than formerly—still, I should cling as closely as ever to the measure. For what was its principal object? Not to lower the rates of the rich, but to raise the character of the pauper; not to spare the income of the opulent, but to improve the moral feeling of the poor. I hope that this object will be gradually, but surely, attained. I hope that the labouring classes of the people of England will be taught no longer to look with longing eyes at the means or earnings of others for their support; but that every one will depend upon his own industry, and will upon that alone found his expectations and those of

his family. If this should be so, the comfort and happiness of the labouring classes will speedily increase; if this should not be so, I care not if the saving be twice that which it is now alleged, and I believe truly alleged, to be. What I look to, as I have already said, is the restoration of the character as well as of the comforts of the poor. If that should not be the result of the new system, as I am now the foremost to challenge inquiry into its merits, I should then be the foremost to call on your lordships for its repeal. Again: if there should appear to be any defect in the mechanism of the law—if there should any abuse be found in the exercise of the powers which the law confers—if there should be detected any impropriety whatever in the administration of the law, whether general or particular, let that defect, let that abuse, let that impropriety be brought forward and established, and your lordships will find that there is not a more vehement, that there is not a more implacable corrector of wrong, or prosecutor of the wrong-doer, than myself. No one has so great an interest in the correction of its abuses as its authors; no one has such a stake in its fortunes as they who are responsible for its operation, and do not shrink from their responsibility. Above all, no one can have nearly so great a desire to prevent every abuse in those who administer it, as those who, having named them, are answerable for their conduct. My lords, if I so challenge inquiry into the merits of the new system—if I so call for the appointment of a committee to hear evidence upon oath, with respect to those merits—if I so show my readiness to amend, or even to repeal the law, should it be found expedient to do so—if I so evince my disposition to deal with the measure exactly as it may seem meet to your lordships to deal with it—I claim this as an act of justice; I claim it, not as a boon, but as a right; I claim for the measure, and for its supporters, and for its administrators—(who, although I know they have administered it in a spirit of the greatest kindness and humanity, have, nevertheless, been exposed to every violence of censure and obloquy)—I claim it as a right, that if the challenge I give be not accepted—if the call I make be not answered—if the opponents of the system bring forward no specific charge—if they do not allege any distinct abuse—why, then, I claim, as a matter of common right and justice, a cessation of those attacks, a cessation of those groundless aspersions, a cessation of those base suspicions, a cessation of those ungenerous, false, and foul calumnies which have lately been poured out in such scandalous profusion, through the press, and in speeches, for the last twelve months. What I ask, my lords, is simply this: that if you refuse to tell us, or rather, if you refuse to tell the government, and the poor law commissioners, what the charge is against them—if you refuse to try them on such charge—that, being so untried and unaccused, you will not pronounce a sentence of condemnation; nay, more, that you will not proceed to inflict punishment. This is all I ask. I ask for strict justice; I ask not for any favour. Less than justice your lordships will not give; more than justice I disdain to require.

S P E E C H E S

ON THE

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE LIVERPOOL MECHANICS' INSTITUTE.

DELIVERED AT LIVERPOOL,

JULY 20, 1835.

INTRODUCTION.

THE following speeches were delivered on the occasion of founding a new Mechanics' Institute at Liverpool. Beside the topics more immediately connected with the solemnity, the second of the speeches touched upon Lord Brougham's position with relation to the new ministry. He distinctly stated that he did not in any sense belong to their party; that his party was the people and the country; that he should support the government as long as it abided by its professed principles; and that when it deserted those principles he should abandon its support, and see whether the people would stand by the ministers or by him. He particularly specified two questions upon which he promised to support them, the municipal reform, and the reform of the Irish church. In the month following this speech, he fully redeemed the first of these pledges. It has been out of his power, or any other man's, to redeem the other; because the Irish church reform no longer rests at all upon its former principles.

But although notice was most plainly given by Lord Brougham, that he should be found among the friends of the ministry no longer than they adhered to their popular principles; and, above all, no longer than they showed a disposition to make the reform bill bear its appointed fruit of a good and cheap government, the senseless advocates of the ministers have betokened much surprise at his openly and strenuously opposing them when they took a course infinitely beyond anything that in 1835 could be even imagined—when, as soon as the accession of the Queen threw the whole court into their hands, they ostentatiously avowed themselves hostile to all improvement of the reform bill, even to the correction of its most manifest defects—when they made war upon the rights and liberties of the whole Canadian people, suspending their free constitution, and proclaiming a dictatorship, because a revolt had broken out in the corner of one or two parishes, occasioned by acts of gross legislative violence and injustice—when they framed their new civil list upon the most exploded and unreasonable principles, and without the least regard to the economy which the people have an unquestionable right to demand—finally, when they refused to comply with the voice of the whole people by emancipating the slaves, encouraged even a revival of slave trading, and exercised their

absolute control over the arrangements of the Queen's household, by dismissing Lord Charles Fitzroy from her Majesty's service, as a punishment for conscientiously voting against the continuance of slavery.

It is confidently believed, that no person of ordinary discernment and the most limited portion of fairness, can read the notice so plainly given in the second Liverpool speech,* of the terms on which alone Lord Brougham would continue a supporter of government, and say that he could now be found among their friends without an utter abandonment of all the principles which he professed in 1835, and which, indeed, were those of his whole public life. It is equally clear, from his supporting the ministry in 1835—from his giving them no opposition in 1836—from his only opposing them upon their Canada bill in 1837—and from his beginning the opposition which he has given them during the present session (1838) as soon as they declared against reform, and emancipation, and also against economy—that their own conduct alone has caused the separation; and that no falsehood was ever uttered, even in the utmost heats of political discord, with so audacious a disregard of the most notorious facts, nay, of the most recent and best known dates themselves, as that insinuation which would connect his opposition with the fact of his holding no office in the present ministry. He ceased to hold office in the ministry, April, 1835; he strenuously supported them all that year. Another chancellor was appointed in 1836. Lord Brougham abstained from opposing them even when they abandoned his plurality bill, and brought forward a chancery reform so utterly ridiculous that every party gave it up, and its authors themselves speedily abandoned it to universal scorn. He even abstained from attending in Parliament that session, because he was apprized by the ministers that his doing so would be fatal to the government. In 1837, he pursued the same friendly course wherever he could, and only gave a reluctant opposition to the unconstitutional bill for seizing the Canadian money without the people's consent. When, secure in court favour by the entire possession of the Queen's whole authority, they proceeded to abandon almost every one important ground on which he had ever agreed with them—then, and not before, his opposition began. If the ministerial advocates have any proofs to give of political or party obligation,—or, above all, any one single personal reason, arising from personal obligations of any sort whatever, why he should—not adhere to them—(for that would be to abandon his own opinions)—but mitigate the expression of his dissent from them—or in any way show forbearance towards them personally—it will be far better to give those proofs and reasons, and, above all, those facts, than to persist in distorting plain, well known facts, disregard dates, and re-echo groundless and unintelligible complaints.

But these matters are personal and comparatively insignificant. Their interest, though intense, is transient; they occupy after times as little as they wholly engrossed attention at the moment; their contemplation leaves no trace but a sigh behind,—“*O fallacem hominum spem, fragilemque fortunam, et inanes nostras contentiones!*”—The important result of the great meeting which these speeches commemorate, and the consolatory inference to be drawn from them, is the wonderful improvement to which they bear testimony of the public mind at Liverpool upon everything connected with slavery and the slave trade, within the compass of a few years; and the irrepressible demonstrations of a steady and ardent love of peace which the allusion to that important subject drew forth from the whole of an immense assemblage of all ranks, and sects, and parties—the whole community of the second town in the kingdom.

* This speech was published and circulated extensively, in July 1835, in a penny pamphlet, from which it is here exactly reprinted.

S P E E C H

ON LAYING THE FOUNDATION STONE.

GENTLEMEN,—Often as I have been in Liverpool, and delighted as I am always to see my fellow-citizens of this place, I confess that there are some circumstances which make my present meeting with you much more gratifying than it has ever been at other times. I do not mean to say that I at all undervalue the extreme importance of the occasions on which I formerly met you: I consider, and I don't disguise upon any occasion my fixed opinion, that political meetings are the right, and the privilege, and the duty of Englishmen; nevertheless, so long as men are men, they will take different views of the same things, and in proportion as the subject of their discussion interests them, they will be apt to differ widely and strongly in their opinions; the consequence of which is, that on political subjects we have many dissensions—are split into many parties, and are separated by many shades of opinion, which, the more honestly and the more conscientiously they are entertained, the more difficultly will they be compromised or surrendered. Hence when I formerly came amongst you, I met only a part of the community, because I only co-operated with that party who agreed with me in political sentiments. I am happy to say that the present occasion is one on which there can be no difference of opinion: to-day, Whig and Tory, Churchman and Dissenter, Priest and Layman, Catholic and Protestant, English, Scotch, and Irish, Radical and Constitutional Reformer, the moderate and the violent,—all are agreed in favour of Popular Education. This it is that gives me such sincere satisfaction in seeing you assembled on the present occasion. I meet you on neutral ground, on ground which knows no difference of opinion; and I meet all my fellow-citizens, of all parties, without jarring or animosity of any kind whatever.

Nothing can exceed the importance of the pursuit in which we are now engaged. It is to diffuse the blessings of knowledge amongst all classes of the community; to afford the means of instruction in the most useful arts to by far the most useful members of this great community. The establishment of a Mechanics' Institution at Liverpool I look upon as one of the most important eras in the history of its people; as the origin from which may be expected to spring the greatest improvement in the arts and sciences, and the happiest results upon the condition and the morals of the people. There needs only one observation to illustrate this truth. During the last hour and a half, whilst travelling in one hour the thirty miles between this town

and Manchester, the subject that constantly presented itself at every step of the way—almost the only subject that the immense velocity of the motion left me time to think upon—was, to what and to whom we owe this most astonishing power—this revolution in the situation of mankind with relation to the globe we inhabit? In their distance from each other, and for every purpose of intercourse, Manchester and Liverpool are, as if by magic, brought within one-fifth part of their distance ten years ago, and within one-tenth part of their distance a century before that. What has worked this most extraordinary change? What is it that enables man to move almost with the wings of the dove, and perform the various operations of business, or amusement, or pleasure, attending to private affairs, or to public concerns, half a dozen times in the course of the day, at places thirty miles asunder, operations which, in former ages, it would have taken a week to accomplish? What is it that makes the distance between Manchester and Liverpool nothing—which will enable us shortly to proceed from Liverpool to Birmingham, or from Liverpool to London, in eight or ten hours at furthest? What is the power that annihilates, as it were, the space which separates different communities of men,—or walking on the waves, brings the continents buried in the heart of America down to the sea coast, and civilizes their inhabitants by commerce and intercourse with their fellow-men? Why, it is Steam, subdued to the use of man, and made as docile and a thousand times more powerful than any domestic animal, instead of being the source of terror and dismay by its devastations. And who was it that subjugated this mighty power? A working mechanic, James Watt, whose name ought to live for ever, not in the annals of his country alone, but of his kind, as the common benefactor of the human race. James Watt was a maker of mathematical instruments,—a mechanic,—respectably connected it is true; but nothing is so respectable as personal good conduct, genius and knowledge, which may be possessed by the peasant as well as the prince. What was it subjected steam to us, but the skill, industry, and capacity of that working mechanic of the town of Greenock, in Scotland? For myself, I think that there is not one of the mechanics to be taught in this institution, of which we have now been laying the foundation stone, who may not expect in future times to add to the discoveries of Watt, to increase further the powers of his species, to extend the resources of his country, and to benefit all mankind by the application of his knowledge to the safest, most innocent, and most useful of all conquests—those won over the inert masses of matter—in the most beneficial of all alliances, those formed with its energies and powers. Gentlemen, having to-day, for the first time, seen your railroad, I could not repress my sentiments touching the moral to be drawn from it, and I have, therefore, taken the liberty of detaining you so long. I press that moral on your attention; I congratulate you on the assembly of this day; I congratulate the town of Liverpool on the fruit which this institution is certain in a few years to bear; and I thank you most heartily for the very kind reception which you have now as ever given me.

S P E E C H

AT THE DINNER.*

GENTLEMEN,—I should attempt a vain task if I endeavoured to express my deep and grateful sense of the singular kindness with which you have received me to-day, as you have done on so many former occasions. It has been to me a truly gratifying circumstance that I have had the opportunity, at length, of performing a promise which various accidents had prevented me from fulfilling, made some year or two ago, of revisiting this place, for the purpose of observing more closely its institutions connected with education. I have been enabled to pay this long-deferred visit, and to be present at the highly interesting solemnity at which I believe all of us, all at least who are in the lowest and in the highest portions† of this immense assembly, with the exception, perhaps, of the middle and more interesting part of it,‡ have assisted, and assisted with the same feelings of satisfaction which the occasion has inspired in me,—I mean the laying of the foundation stone of a most important, and, as I trust it is fated to be, a lasting and a flourishing institution. It is indeed impossible to consider, without sentiments of the most animating description, the occasion which drew us together in the morning, and which is connected, at least in some degree, with the assembly of this evening; for I have no hesitation in saying, that of all the improvements which have been made of late years in the condition of the people of this country, the diffusion of knowledge, both in science and in the other principles of their art, amongst the industrious portion of the middle classes, to whose use mechanics' institutions are more especially devoted, stands in the first rank amongst the very foremost. These institutions have spread within the last ten or twelve years prodigiously over the country. But they did not originate ten or twelve years ago. Strict justice requires me to remind you that a much earlier date is to be taken as the origin of these useful establishments; for, though the London Mechanics' Institution was established in 1824, principally through the efforts of its chief founder and most munificent patron, Dr. Birkbeck, he had, twenty-four years before, established the earliest real Mechanics' Institution in the city of Glasgow, where he first gave scientific lectures to humble artisans. Some have doubted whether he were the first

* This great assembly was held in the large theatre; the pit being with the stage arranged for the dinner, the boxes filled with ladies, and the galleries with other spectators.

† The pit and gallery.

‡ The ladies in the boxes.

that suggested the Institution of London; some have claimed to share with him the praise of executing that great design; but be it that he had coadjutors in planning, as it is certain he had in executing it, I care not,—for he was only taking a leaf out of his own book, twenty-four years old, which I have in my possession, printed at Glasgow in the year 1800, and in which there is a proposal of the first course of lectures on subjects of science, which ever any man of science delivered to the mere men of art. Having stopped, therefore, to render this debt of gratitude, or rather of strict justice, as I never fail to do as often as I attend meetings connected with the education of the working classes,—as often, especially, as I attend meetings of mechanics' institutions,—I will proceed to add that his great merit does not eclipse that of his associates, and, therefore, ought not to erase from our minds the gratitude due to those who have helped him in the good work, and are following his bright example. In London he had coadjutors at the establishment of the first mechanics' institution; in Manchester, Sheffield, Leeds, Birmingham, and most of the manufacturing towns, he has had followers; and, thank God, many more are rising still from day to day, extending the system, and spreading its benefits still more widely. I will venture to say, however, that of all the instances in which his name has been commemorated with honour, there is none which will afford him such heartfelt satisfaction, as the reception you have now given to the mention of it, because he is your neighbour, and all but born and bred in the county palatine of Lancaster.*

And now, gentlemen, I hope and trust that those who assisted this morning at the solemnity of laying the foundation stone, and those who are here this evening, will remember that we are celebrating a festival, in part, at least, connected with the institution,—the festival of education, the festival of popular improvement, and of public virtue, which is intimately connected with general instruction, and which cannot rest on any basis so sound as that of a scientific, moral, and religious education.—I name these three branches in the inverse order of their importance:—and, moreover, because this is the festival of education, public improvement, and public virtue, it is the festival also of peace and good-will to mankind. This is the festival of the arts of peace at home, as rising proudly above all the arts of the seditious, the factious, the incendiary, and the destructive,—the festival of that greatest of public blessings, after internal tranquillity, I mean peace with all the world; peace with America, our kinsmen; peace in Ireland, our sister country; peace with the great and enlightened, and, I thank God, now the *free* people of France, our nearest neighbour, and, therefore, even as our sordid interests are concerned, our best customer and best market, if nations were but wise, and their government and our government would only learn that the nearest neighbours are the most profitable customers one to another. This is the kind of festival which is connected with the morning's operations, we are this evening met to

* Dr. Birkbeck's most respectable family has long been established at Settle, in Yorkshire.

celebrate; and there must further be added, not the least of the other accompaniments of the toast which you have been pleased so kindly to receive as connected with my name,—the great corollary of education, its precious fruit, the blessing of civil and religious liberty. On such an occasion, therefore, I need only remind those who were present this morning, and you who are here now, that there is no duty more sacred, none which presses more upon your attention, or better deserves your strictest performance at the present time, than to give your hearty, effectual, and speedy encouragement to the great institution which we were earlier in the day met to establish. I am happy to inform you that an admirable beginning has been made by a friend, who conceals his name under the three last letters of the alphabet, but whose praise I could not sufficiently speak if I were to take all the letters of the alphabet, and put them into any form of words into which they could be combined. That friend has sent no less than the sum of £100 for the purposes of this institution.

Here, then, gentlemen, I might, perhaps, take my leave of you, having drawn your attention to what is really the principal subject of our present consideration; but one or two things press so strongly on my mind, and left so lively an impression upon it this morning, that I cannot but detain you a little longer to express the feelings which I have been filled with. In the first place, then, having come, for the first time in my life, on the magnificent work which unites Manchester with Liverpool, and which, as it were by a miraculous interposition of human art, under the blessing of Divine Providence, has overcome the distance of space that separates the two towns, and has brought Manchester close upon her great outlet to the commerce of the world, I have not been able to keep my mind from the contemplation of the subjects which that short journey, though over a long distance, forced upon my attention. I reminded you this morning that all this was owing to a mechanic, who had received a good education; that it was all derived from his happy application of the principles of science, which that education had implanted deeply in his mind, to the improvement of the arts. But another thought struck me, to which I cannot avoid giving utterance, and which I did express to those friends who accompanied me on the journey. When I saw the difficulties of space and time, as it were overcome,—when I beheld a kind of miracle exhibited before my astonished eyes,—when I surveyed mosses pierced through on which it was before hardly possible for man or beast to plant the sole of the foot, and now covered with a road and bearing heavy waggons, laden not only with innumerable passengers, but with merchandise of the largest bulk and heaviest weight,—when I saw valleys made practicable by the bridges of ample height and length which spanned them,—saw the steam railway traversing the surface of the water at a distance of sixty or seventy feet in perpendicular height,—saw the rocks excavated, and the gigantic power of man penetrating through miles of the solid mass, and gaining a great, a lasting, an almost perennial conquest over the powers of nature by his skill and his industry,—when I

contemplated all this, was it possible for me to avoid the reflections which crowded into my mind,—not in praise of man's great deeds—not in admiration of the genius and perseverance which he had displayed, or even of the courage which he had shown in setting himself against the obstacles that matter had opposed to his course,—no, but the melancholy reflection that whilst all these prodigious efforts of the human race, so fruitful of praise, but so much more fruitful in lasting blessings to mankind, and which never could have forced a tear from any eye, but for that unhappy casualty which deprived me of a friend and you of a representative,* a cause of mourning which there began and there ended; when I reflected that this peaceful, and guiltless, and useful triumph over the elements and over nature herself, had cost a million only of money, whilst 1500 millions had been squandered on cruelty and crime,—in naturalizing barbarism over the world,—shrouding the nations in darkness,—making bloodshed tinge the earth of every country under the sun,—in one horrid and comprehensive word, squandered on WAR,—the greatest curse of the human race, and the greatest crime, because it involves every other crime within its execrable name, and all with the wretched, and, thank God, I may now say, the utterly frustrated,—as it always was the utterly vain,—attempt to crush the liberties of the people? (*Here the company rose simultaneously, and greeted this sentiment with deafening cheers.*) I look backwards with shame—with regret unspeakable,—with indignation to which I should in vain attempt to give utterance,—upon that course of policy which we are now happily too well informed and too well intentioned ever to allow again whilst we live,—when I think that if 100, and but 100 of those 1500 millions, had been employed in promoting the arts of peace, and the progress of civilization, and of wealth, and prosperity amongst us, instead of that other employment which is too hateful to think of, and almost now-a-days too disgusting to speak of,—(and I hope to live to see the day when such things will be incredible,—when looking back we shall find it impossible to believe they ever happened)—instead of being burthened with 800 millions of debt, borrowed after spending 700 millions, borrowed when we had no more to spend,—we should have seen the whole country covered with such works as now unite Manchester and Liverpool, and should have enjoyed peace uninterrupted during the last forty years, with all the blessings which an industrious and a virtuous people deserve, and which peace profusely sheds upon their lot.

Gentlemen, I have not only seen your railway, and drawn my moral from that, but I have seen Liverpool, and, though I was here for a morning five years ago,—the day the railway was opened,—and saw then the important improvements made during the interval which separated that from my former visit; yet I never come, and never shall come, however short the interval, without seeing astonishing proofs of the progress this great town is making. To go no further, I

* Mr. Huskisson's death in 1830, on the opening of the Railway.

went to the docks, and I believe all Europe does not present a more interesting spectacle than the line ending with the new graving docks, all of which have been made since I was last here. Whilst contemplating these improvements, I was happy in considering that all is now taking the right course,—that instead of a gambling, speculative sort of trade, too generally driven by great seaports, and from which London itself is not exempt, there is in Liverpool a much more healthy, and a much more moderate, I mean a more secure, more extensive, and unquestionably a more beneficial trade for the prosperity of the country at large. But, gentlemen, there was one change, one prodigious improvement which I saw most strikingly exemplified, and there is not any which does greater honour to the name of any community under the canopy of heaven, than the commercial revolution to which I allude. I was taken to a vessel lying in one of those docks. It had once been a slave-ship. It was the only slave-ship I ever beheld, often as these dreadful vessels of wrath had been present to my imagination. This ship had been captured by a king's cruiser in the South American seas. It had been filled with pirates. I grieve to say three of those pirates were Englishmen; I grieve yet more to say that the captain was himself of our nation. There had been 750 wretched slaves in a vessel of 300 tons burthen, and there had been to keep them in order, beside the chains, 75 ruffians,—pirates,—slave-dealers. I know that thirty or forty years ago I durst as soon have cut off my right hand, or had the tongue I speak with burned out of my head, as uttered what I have uttered to you this instant. And I'll venture to say that there is not one man who now hears me, but cordially exults in the sentiment I am about to express,—Blessed be God that we have lived to see the day when this hellish traffic is declared to be piracy by law, as it in all times was in its own nature! The English captain of this slaver died on the spot, pierced with many wounds, after behaving with a bravery worthy of a better cause; but the other three Englishmen who degraded themselves by engaging in this horrid crime, are now in a dungeon, about to suffer the capital punishment due to their guilt. There are many instances of nations having, in the slow course of ages, improved their opinions, mended their habits, bettered their morals, left vicious and taken to virtuous courses; but Liverpool is the only community which, within the memory of one generation of short-lived men, has exhibited this moral miracle, and abandoned a gainful, because it was a guilty, commerce.

I ought to apologize, gentlemen, for detaining you so long; but I shall continue to trespass on your attention for a little while. I ought, as some amends for the singular kindness which you have bestowed on me, and which, indeed, I should perhaps have felt the more, had I less expected it,—for the kindness I have always received from the town of Liverpool during a quarter of a century, exceeds any powers I have to describe it; but I should make ill amends for it, if I did not say that I do not feel I am doing anything wrong,—that I never felt I was degrading any station in which it pleased Providence to place me by coming forward freely, and meeting my fellow-citizens. I

know that my doing so has been objected to, and I know that my attendance at one dinner in particular was made the topic of censure; but I care not for it now, and I cared not then. I may, however, say, that the only dinner I voluntarily attended when in Scotland, last year, was one given, which I was urged to accept by my friend Mr. Bannerman, the member for Aberdeen. There was another,—that given to Earl Grey at Edinburgh,—to which I could not avoid going, without giving currency to the most ridiculous of all strange falsehoods, then propagating by the hireling and slanderous press, namely, that Lord Althorp and myself had endeavoured to turn Lord Grey out of the ministry. I had, indeed, two letters from Earl Grey, acquitting us of such a wild plot as cutting our own throats by cutting Earl Grey's would have been,—and one of them stating that none of his colleagues had made such constant efforts, up to the last moment, to keep him from resigning, as Lord Althorp and myself did. I was not satisfied with that. I thought that if I did not go to meet Earl Grey at Edinburgh, as I was pressed by my liberal fellow-townsmen to do, I should give additional currency to that most absurd and wholly unaccountable calumny. Yet it was said, "Who ever saw such a thing in this world?" What! a chancellor—a lord high chancellor—attending a public dinner!" I really expected next to hear,—and it would have struck me with no more astonishment,—“Did any mortal breathing ever hear of a lord high chancellor dining at all?” Now, as the charge against public men for attending public dinners is, in the eyes of some, a very grave one, I feel “for my order,” who are thus traduced in my person; and I am bound to defend them as well as I can. I feel for the illustrious living, and also for the departed greatness of the country; I feel, not only for such men as your late lamented representative, Mr. Huskisson, who never shrank from meeting his fellow-citizens in public; but I feel still more for another of your late representatives, who was a still greater sinner in this way, because he met the public, not only at dinners, but in the morning, and also in the evening, when there was not the excuse of a good dinner for his so doing. I did not change my opinions to join him; he became liberal at the close of his career; I gave my most cordial and disinterested support to his government, though I declined to join it;—I need hardly tell you that I mean the late Mr. Canning. Gentlemen, Mr. Canning was subject to the same imputation.

Let me not confine myself to Liverpool. I am bound to defend other illustrious men from the same charge, and, principally, the late Mr. Pitt. Though I differed with him in politics—though I deeply lament the course which the alarmists and the court seduced him to take—though I have done my best to guard against a similar seduction, from the very same quarters, at the present day, and have, therefore, the satisfaction of being out of office, instead of being still clothed with power—I admit—who does not?—that Mr. Pitt was a great minister, a great orator, and a man of unsullied public virtue, as far as freedom from mean, sordid, and despicable views could make him such. He sacrificed much to ambition, he sacrificed much more to

the love of place, which I think, in him, was not love of power, because he consented to hold office without that influence which every minister ought to possess, if he means to act wisely and honestly for the good of this country; but he had great and good qualities notwithstanding; and I am ready, differing wholly as I do from his politics, and agreeing with his early principles, to which his whole course while in power presented a frightful contrast—I admit his great qualities, as every man who has the least regard to truth, or any candour in his composition, must cheerfully allow. I am, therefore, in defending myself from this charge, also defending Mr. Pitt—for he attended public meetings; he addressed his fellow-citizens after public dinners; he uttered at a city banquet a sort of counter-manifesto to that of Bonaparte, then first made emperor of France and king of Italy by himself, and who had denounced as the cause of war and the object of his hostilities, our ships, colonies and commerce. The counter-manifesto was made, not in France, or even off the coast of France, but more conveniently at a dinner at Guildhall, where Mr. Pitt, not satisfied with the victory gained by Lord Nelson at Trafalgar, over the combined fleets of France and Spain, on the 21st of October, attended on the 9th of November following, and after an eloquent speech to the ladies and gentlemen in dining-room assembled, gave, as a toast, by way of answering the manifesto of the Emperor Napoleon, with a sarcasm, in which he excelled all men—“The ships, colonies, and commerce of England.” Him, therefore, I defend also from this charge. But it will be said he only was a chancellor of the exchequer. Well, then, I must even undertake the defence of my venerable and learned friend, the Earl of Eldon, from whom I never received anything but kindness in the course of my professional life; for whom, as a lawyer, I feel the greatest possible admiration, in common with all lawyers; under whom I, his humble successor, studied the principles of the court in which he presided for twenty-five years; and whose judgments I respect as a pure fountain of equity. I therefore pay a debt which I owe to him as the chancellor who preceded me, as the judge under whom I practised, as the master from whom I drew my knowledge, when I defend him from the gross, the foul, and the bitter charge of a lord high chancellor of England daring to meet his fellow-countrymen in public. Year after year did my venerable predecessor, when holding the great seal, attend public dinners, sometimes with Mr. Pitt, sometimes without him; and after Mr. Pitt’s decease, Lord Eldon knew no better mode of testifying his respect for his departed friend and leader’s memory than by annually delivering a very impressive speech at the dinner to celebrate the anniversary of Mr. Pitt’s birth. Shall it be said, then, that it is unexampled in a lord chancellor to attend public dinners? Those enemies of mine, who never come into sight, but are exceedingly active mining under ground and working in the dark, had better betake themselves to some other charge, at least while Lord Eldon is allowed to remain an ornament to his country.

Having endeavoured to state the precedents, and to defend the cha-

racter of illustrious men now no more, and of those who are still preserved to us, permit me now to say that it has been at all times not merely a privilege of public men to meet their fellow-citizens on fitting occasions, but a privilege of the people to have public men constantly coming before them, and a duty of those men to come before the people freely, without the nonsense and hauteur with which some idle folks choose to invest themselves by way of avoiding responsibility to the people; by way of making the people more easily led and misled; and by way of making them safe to govern and misgovern,—the policy, and the tactics, and the trick of those who, of late years, have been pleased to make the discovery that ministers have no business to attend public meetings. One other word I must add on this score; none of those who choose to confine their public appearances to after dinner exertions will ever find me do so. I appear here once in eight years, but I live in Parliament. Whatever others may do, who appear nowhere but at such meetings, my life is passed where it ought, at my post in Parliament.

Gentlemen,—I know it has been also said, it has been very lately said, that I do not hold the same doctrines, and pursue the same course, in office and out of office; that I feel no difficulty in coming here to-day, and exalting the people by magnifying their means and their power, in exciting their hopes by holding out the prospect of still further improvements; and that, whilst in office, I shunned the people, did not magnify their means, did not hold out hopes of greater reforms, but did all that in me lay to relax the pace at which public reforms were going on. Gentlemen, never was a charge more ridiculous. The insinuation is about as true as it is consistent, and it comes with a strange grace from the very persons who condemned my attending meetings while I held the great seal. But it seems I preached up cautious reform in those days, and complained of those who were impatient. I said precisely then what I say now, that crude, rank, precipitate reforms are worse, and worse for the cause of reform, than standing stock still. I then, as now, treat those as the most absurd and thoughtless of men who complained of the government I was connected with for doing too little since the reform bill was carried. I then thought, and still think, that a more groundless charge never was brought against any men than the accusation of doing little, brought against those who, in two sessions of Parliament, had emancipated the slaves of the west and the commerce of the east,—settled the bank charter,—reformed the whole Scotch municipal corporations,—improved the criminal and civil law,—swept away the abuses of the Court of Chancery, and, though last, the greatest of all, abolished for ever the debasing system of the abused poor laws. But have I not now, when out of office, practised exactly what I preached when in power? Have I confined my consistency to using the same language in and out? No such thing. I have acted towards this government, whom these silly persons are endeavouring to serve, precisely as I asked others to act by myself last year. What were the measures I was then most anxious to see carried? The local courts

bill, to bring cheap justice home to every dwelling; and the bill for at once abolishing the pluralities and non-residence of the clergy. These great measures were ready prepared; they were, after infinite pains, digested in bills; those bills were even printed; all was ready for carrying them through Parliament; and my belief was, that this government, which professed to approve them, could have passed them into laws. But I have carefully abstained from urging them forward, because I knew it would embarrass them in some quarters. I have never pressed the subject in any way, because I was satisfied with what the ministers are now engaged in doing, or endeavouring to do; and which, backed by the people, and relying only on their support, I trust they will succeed in accomplishing, I mean municipal reform and the reformation of the Irish church. Is not this demonstrative of the silly falsehood of that charge? Can anything more be wanting to show that my conduct in 1835, out of office, is exactly what I recommended while a minister, in 1834? No, no, gentlemen; trust me, it is because my principles do *not so very easily bend to circumstances and take their hue from situations*, that we now meet on the same level, and that I no longer am in the service of the state.

Moreover, I will fairly own that it must be a very good and active government which I will ever consent to join. Unless I see a prospect of governing with the power of really serving the people,—unless I can find a government strong to do so, and willing, my present position of absolute independence suits me best. It must be a ministry of that kind, and which will do much, much, much, to relieve the intolerable burdens of this nation, and bless it with a very, very, very, cheap government, that shall tempt me to abandon my post with and in front of that people. Digest your measures well,—be not rash, be not precipitate,—be not impatient whilst you see that honest men have hold of the helm of the state, and that important measures are in progress under their auspices. Such now is and always was my advice. I too shall get impatient if I find that they flag,—I too shall get suspicious if I find that they flinch; but in the mean time I shall be one of the humblest, perhaps the most superfluous, but certainly the most zealous of their defenders, in a house where defenders do not superabound. In the country I happen to be better acquainted with the people than any of them, and I shall be, as I have been, their supporter out of doors as well as in Parliament, where I never decline to appear on any occasion, in office or in opposition. In all places I shall be their defender, till they give me cause to leave them; and when I do leave them, I believe I shall not alone quit them,—I believe that when I abandon them, it will be because they have abandoned the people; and whether the people will cling by me or cling by them, is a question which I will not delay a moment to ask or have answered.

Gentlemen, it has been most justly said, that this is essentially not a party meeting; but there is no such thing in these times as public men coming among their fellow-citizens and no mention being made of politics. I trust I have given offence to no one by stating that my

opinions are now what they always were. But I never grndged any man the credit he might get by altering his opinions for the better; and I think it truly unfortunate that a disposition has lately sprung up among us, to turn our backs on those men who were our adversaries, but are now willing to range themselves in the great class of reformers. For my part, if any man, be his name what it will,—Melbourne, Grey, Russell, Althorp, Wellington, or Peel,—will change bad opinions for good ones, coming over to us not for the lust of power, not to bolster up a falling administration, but to help forward good measures, and give the people a chance of good government,—I am the last man in the world to inquire what he did before. I say, “what do you now?” “God forbid that I should twit you with ever having been worse than you are now disposed to be.” This has been, right or wrong, my constant principle. I am reminded of it by Liverpool, and all I see around me. Did I not here conflict for weeks with Mr. Canning, in 1812? Yet did I not, after fifteen years, support a cabinet at the head of which was Mr. Canning, because he had taken up liberal opinions on foreign questions, as well as on matters of domestic policy? I said then, “you have changed to liberal politics—I should not have gone over to you, but you have come over to me, and I will support you.” Did I not, in 1830, and did not Earl Grey and Lord Althorp with me do the self-same thing? Lord Melbourne, Lord Glenelg, then Mr. Grant, Lord Goderich, formerly Mr. Robinson, the Duke of Richmond, the enemy of Catholic emancipation, but one of the most honest, conscientious, and enlightened men, nevertheless, that I know,—Lord Palmerston; every one of these five were supporters of Lord Castlereagh’s Six Acts. Yet I sat in the same cabinet with them, and I support three of them who are now in office, because they, in conformity with the improving spirit of the age, have come to be liberal. Earl Grey, Lord Althorp, Lord John Russell and myself never changed our opinions at all; we were, in 1831, and had always before been, parliamentary reformers; these five had all been strong anti-reformers down to the last moment, but I said, “let us act together for the good of the people, and to promote the cause of good government, since they have left their former opinions and come over to ours.” I see no sense, gentlemen, in dealing out a different measure to others who have been our opponents, if indeed we act not for a party, but for the people. Our common object ought to be the general good, and that will never be promoted if we make war not on those who oppose us, but on the converts to our views.

Gentlemen, it has been kindly and judiciously said, in some of the public prints opposed to us, one of which was represented to me before dinner, that it is all very well for the poor dupes of Liverpool to invite me to a public dinner, for they are but a part of the people, and Liverpool is, it seems, the only town that would give me such an invitation. Then, if it be so, I am sure I know not why;—for *I never bribed* in Liverpool; *I never treated* in Liverpool; I never either bought or sold the freemen; I never resided in Liverpool; I never traded in Liverpool; no man in Liverpool was ever the better for me, excepting as other

subjects of the realm may have been benefited by my endeavours to promote the common good. But are those good folks quite certain that you are so singular in your taste? I would not have them be too sure of that. In fact, it is a most ridiculous fiction. No sooner did I come home, last February, to the city of London and Westminster, than it was proposed to invite me to a public dinner, not confined to one party, and I declined accepting it, because, living there, I have constant opportunities of seeing my fellow-citizens. I have also received invitations from various places in Lancashire, Yorkshire, and elsewhere, even on this journey; and I believe no such public meetings were ever held in London as the four at which I presided last May, and each of which was attended by thousands. So much for the charge against the town and people of Liverpool. It is, perhaps, not worth so much notice; but having defended Mr. Pitt, Mr Canning, Mr. Huskisson, and Lord Eldon, from a charge common to us all—I should have been the most ungrateful of men if I had not also defended you against this charge, which has been brought against you, of having a singular taste.

To one charge, however, which they bring against me, I must, no doubt of it, plead guilty,—I have not found favour with the courtiers, and I am no longer in office. My political habits; my principles; my popular feelings; the perpetual struggle of my life for the rights of my fellow-citizens; the determination which guides my public conduct that the interests of the people shall be the sole rule of the government; above all, my fixed and unalterable resolution that the reform bill shall bear its natural fruits, by giving this country at length a really cheap government, without which it is a useless and barren stock;—all these things are the worst of crimes in the eyes of a court, and the result of them is, that I now meet my fellow-citizens in a private station, and absolutely independent in the performance of all my duties. Nor do I boast of having made any great sacrifice.

If it were not somewhat late in the day for moralizing, I could tell of the prerogatives, not so very high, the enjoyments, none of the sweetest, which he loses who surrenders place, oftentimes misnamed power. To be responsible for measures which others control, perchance contrive; to be chargeable with leaving undone things which he ought to have done, and had all the desire to do, without the power of doing; to be compelled to trust those whom he knew to be utterly untrustworthy, and on the most momentous occasions, involving the interests of millions, implicitly to confide in quarters where common prudence forbade reposing a common confidence; to have schemes of the wisest, the most profound policy, judged and decided on by the most ignorant and the most frivolous of human beings, and the most generous aspirations of the heart for the happiness of his species, chilled by frowns of the most selfish and sordid of the race: these are among the unenviable prerogatives of place,—of what is falsely called power in this country; and yet I doubt if there be not others less enviable still. To be planted upon the eminence from whence he must see the baser features of human nature uncovered and deformed;

witness the attitude of climbing ambition from a point whence it is only viewed as creeping and crawling, tortuous and venomous, in its hateful path; be forced to see the hideous sight of a naked human heart, whether throbbing in the bosom of the great vulgar or of the little,—this is not a very pleasing occupation for any one who loves his fellow-creatures, and would fain esteem them; and, trust me, that he who wields power and patronage for but a little month, shall find the many he may try to serve furiously hating him for involuntary failure, while the few whom he may succeed in helping to the object of all their wishes, shall, with a preposterous pride, (the most unamiable part of the British character,) seek to prove their independence, by showing their ingratitude, if they do not try to cancel the obligation, by fastening a quarrel upon him. Yet to even all this I might have reconciled myself, from a desire to further great measures, and from the pleasure which excitement gives to active minds, or, if you will, from the glory which inspires ambitious notions among statesmen as well as conquerors. But worse to be endured than all, was the fetter and the cramp imposed on one used to independence,—the being buried while yet alive to the people's condition and claims—buried in the house of form and etiquette, appointed for all ministers. Who, then, can marvel at the exultation which I feel, to shake and to brace every fibre of my frame, when, casting off these trammels, bursting through the cerements of that tomb, I start into new life, and resume my position in the van of my countrymen, struggling for their rights, and moving onwards in the accelerated progress of improvement with a boundless might and a resistless fury, which prostrates in the dust all the puny obstacles that can be raised by the tyranny of courts and their intrigues, the persecution of bigots and their cunning, the sordid plots of greedy monopolists, whether privileged companies, or overgrown establishments, or corrupt municipalities? In this proud position I am now placed; and I have no desire at all to leave it. I am once more absolutely free, the slave of no party, at the mercy of no court intrigue, in the service of my country, and of that only master. Firm on this vantage ground, it must indeed be an honest government, and a strong one, a government which promises much for the people, and is capable of accomplishing much of what it promises, that can ever tempt me to abandon my independence in the front of my countrymen, and enlist with any ministry whatever.

Let us, as well we may, heartily rejoice in the magnificent prospect which now lies before us of good government, general improvement in virtue, and the attainment of national prosperity through the restoration of the people's most unquestioned right, a cheap administration of their affairs, a substantial, effectual relief of their heavy burthens. The enemies of improvement have, indeed, of late years, confessed by their conduct the hopelessness of any further attempt to obstruct its progress; they have bent before the wave, from fear of being swept away by it; and they now have recourse to sneers and jibes at the instruction of the people. We are called schoolmasters,—a title in which I glory, and never shall feel shame. Our penny science is

ridiculed by those who have many pence and little knowledge. Our lectures are laughed at, as delivered to groups of what those ignorant people in fine linen and gaudy attire call, after the poet, "lean unwashed artificers,"—a class of men that should be respected, not derided by those who, were they reduced to work for their bread, would envy the skill of the men they now look down upon. Let such proud creatures enjoy the fancied triumph of their wit; we care not for their light artillery (if, indeed, their heavy jests can be so termed,) half so much as we did for their serious opposition. If they are much amused with our penny sciences, I hope before long to see them laugh twice as much at our penny politics; because, when the abominable taxes upon the knowledge which most concerns the people are removed—I mean the newspaper stamp—we shall have a universal diffusion of sound political knowledge among all classes of the community; and if lectures divert them so mightily now, I can tell them that preparation is making for affording them much more entertainment in the same kind by a very ample extension of the present system of lecturing, and by including politics in the course!

But there is nothing which these adversaries of improvement are more wont to make themselves merry with, than what is termed the "*march of intellect*;" and here I will confess that I think, as far as the phrase goes, they are in the right. It is a very absurd, because a very incorrect expression. It is little calculated to describe the operation in question. It does not picture an image at all resembling the proceedings of the true friends of mankind. It much more resembles the progress of the enemy to all improvement. The conqueror moves in a march. He stalks onward with the "pride, pomp, and circumstance of war," banners flying, shouts rending the air, guns thundering, and martial music pealing, to drown the shrieks of the wounded and the lamentations for the slain. Not thus the schoolmaster in his peaceful vocation. He meditates and prepares in secret the plans which are to bless mankind; he slowly gathers round him those who are to further their execution; he quietly, though firmly, advances in his humble path, labouring steadily, but calmly, till he has opened to the light all the recesses of ignorance, and torn up by the roots the weeds of vice. His is a progress not to be compared with anything like a march; but it leads to a far more brilliant triumph, and to laurels more imperishable than the destroyer of his species, the scourge of the world, ever won.

Such men,—men deserving the glorious title of teachers of mankind, I have found labouring conscientiously, though perhaps obscurely, in their blessed vocation, wherever I have gone. I have found them, and shared their fellowship, among the daring, the ambitious, the ardent, the indomitably active French; I have found them among the persevering, resolute, industrious Swiss; I have found them among the laborious, the warm-hearted, the enthusiastic Germans; I have found them among the high-minded but enslaved Italians; and in our own country, God be thanked, their numbers everywhere abound, and are

every day increasing. Their calling is high and holy; their fame is the property of nations; their renown will fill the earth in after ages, in proportion as it sounds not far off in their own times. Each one of these great teachers of the world, possessing his soul in peace—performs his appointed course—awaits in patience the fulfilment of the promises—resting from his labours, bequeathes his memory to the generation whom his works have blessed—and sleeps under the humble, but not inglorious epitaph, commemorating “one in whom mankind lost a friend, and no man got rid of an enemy!”

S P E E C H

ON

N E U T R A L R I G H T S ,

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

TUESDAY, JULY 10, 1838.

I WISH to call the attention of your lordships to certain orders supposed to have been issued by the admiralty, if not authorizing the capture of Sardinian and Dutch vessels, at all events framed for the purpose of preventing the access of such vessels to the coast of Spain, on the ground that they are engaged in conveying warlike stores to Don Carlos, one of the belligerents, while we are assisting the other.

On a former occasion, I asked whether there would be any objection on the part of her Majesty's ministers to produce these instructions, and I was told to make a motion on the subject. I am, therefore, here to comply with that desire. The intimation which I had received of the orders being issued, arose out of what took place immediately after the speech of my noble and learned friend opposite,* on the noble marquess's† late motion. It had been stated or assumed by him, that the frigates in question, supposed to carry warlike stores, were to be stopped and warned not to go into any Spanish port. Of course, if the warning should be complied with, nothing further would take place. If the warning should be disregarded, it was not said that force was in express terms directed to be used; but if the direction was, "do not use force unless the frigates persist,"—in other words, "unless force is necessary,"—this is in effect a contingent order to use force; no order to employ force ever issued that was not contingent.

I was anxious, in the first instance, to obtain the papers, if such were in existence, and to defer any statement on the subject until they were produced; but that having been refused, I am obliged to take the course I now adopt. The subject, your lordships must be aware, is one of extreme importance, as it is intimately connected with the law of nations, with the honour of the country, and with the preservation

* Lord Lyndhurst.

† Lord Londonderry.

of peace. In support of the position that all fictitious or paper blockades are utterly illegal, are a gross infraction of neutral rights, I have the concurrent authority of all the jurists, and all the judges who have ever delivered opinions, or ever pronounced decrees on the subject. It has been held to be the true and sound doctrine by all statesmen; it has regulated the conduct of all governments, with the exception of the French under Bonaparte, when, intoxicated with power and rushing headlong to his own ruin, he fulminated against us the Berlin and Milan decrees, which, however, have long since been, by the concurrent voice of all nations, stigmatized as illegal. Our orders in council, issued by way of retaliation and never defended on any other ground, led to much discussion of this question, in which, with my noble friend opposite,* in the other House, and even before I had the honour of a seat in Parliament, I long bore a principal part, contending for the sacred duty of upholding the rights of neutrality, as the best security against war, and the surest refuge from its evils. It is, therefore, a matter of course that I should feel peculiar anxiety when I find reason to believe that proceedings have been adopted by the ministers of the Crown tending not only to violate those rights, but to tarnish the honour of the country, to betray her most important interests, to involve us in a contest with foreign powers, and to shake the peace of Europe and of the world. Impressed with this feeling of anxiety and alarm, I deemed it my bounden duty to lose no time in bringing so serious a matter before the House.

But as I am willing to avoid any lengthened statement or argument on the subject if I possibly can, I will state the three points on which I wish to receive information. I will put three plain questions, which may readily be met by three short answers. If those answers be given in the way I wish and hope they may, it will preclude the necessity of my uttering another word on the subject. If the first be answered in the negative, that question being, "Have any such instructions or orders as I allude to been issued?"—if to this the answer "No" can with truth be given, then away goes the whole matter which I would address to your lordships.

But although that first question should, unhappily, be answered in the affirmative, still, if my second question be answered in the same way, or, it being admitted that such instructions have gone forth, and the second question being, "Have you made the regular and requisite notification to all neutral states?"—if that be answered in the affirmative, then much of what I wish to learn will be obtained, and many of my observations will be spared.

But if both of these questions be answered in what I take to be the wrong way—if, unfortunately, the first be answered in the affirmative, and the second in the negative, and it shall appear that although the illegal instructions have been issued, yet no warning has been given to neutral powers,—then comes my third question,—“Can you produce to me the opinion of the proper adviser of the Crown on such

* Lord Ashburton.

matters, her Majesty's advocate, or, indeed, of any lawyer whose name is known in Westminster Hall, that this conduct on the part of the government, is not a gross outrage on neutral rights, and a monstrous infraction of the law of nations?" If that third question be answered in the affirmative, then I am at issue with whatever law authority shall be quoted for such an opinion. I may bow to that authority; but I shall also take leave to say, that of late years the whole law of nations has undergone a radical change—that a new code has been established—and that what was formerly acknowledged by all jurists and all courts to be the law of nations, has ceased to be so since the year 1834, when I quitted Westminster Hall. I am now in the hands of the noble earl at the head of the admiralty,* who will answer or not as seems fit to him, and as the facts within his knowledge enable him to do.

VISCOUNT MELBOURNE.—I must decline giving an answer to the questions of the noble and learned lord.

LORD BROUGHAM.—Now, my lords, when a noble lord declines to answer questions of such a nature as I have propounded, it must be clear to the meanest apprehension—it must be evident to any one possessing even the most ordinary capacity—that the refusal is given because those questions, if answered at all, must be answered in the wrong way, and not so as to vindicate or to save the government from the impending charge. This being perfectly evident, I assume, *first*, that some such instructions as I have referred to, have been issued; *secondly*, that no warning has been given to foreign powers (but if it has been given, it will appear in the papers for which I am about to move); and, *lastly*, that no opinion of any law authority whatever can be cited to maintain this fundamental alteration in the most sacred principles of the law of nations.

But, indeed, as to the existence of the illegal instructions, the noble earl at the head of the admiralty seemed pretty significantly to admit it, t'other day, when he first avowed that he should feel bound to give such orders if the case arose, and next complained of some breach of confidence having brought his instructions within my noble and learned friend's knowledge.

Now, in the argument which I am about to raise, I will first assume that we are at war; I will take it for granted that we stand in the posture of belligerents; that we are parties to a conflict; that we not only take part with one side; but are at war with the other; and that, therefore, we are justified in claiming and exercising all belligerent rights. I will then demonstrate that we have no belligerent rights whatever in this case.

First, then, I ask whether the right which we have exercised is or is not of that description; namely, one of the rights possessed by a belligerent? The case is very simple; it lies within the narrowest compass. If there be one principle in the law of nations better established than another, it is this, namely, that no belligerent can blockade

* Lord Minto.

the coast or port of another belligerent for the purpose of preventing the free ingress and egress of all neutral nations to and from such port or coast, unless that belligerent has a force stationed on the coast or near the port, amply sufficient to prevent the entrance and exit of neutral vessels—a force perfectly and constantly efficient—a force both continued in point of space and of time—so that the chain of blockading or watching ships shall at no part be broken, and at no time be withdrawn, and thus, no room shall be allowed in any way to escape the blockade, but care shall, everywhere and every moment, be taken to make it quite unsafe for any vessel to go in or come out of the port—to approach or leave the coast so blockaded. That undoubtedly is the law. But, perhaps I shall be told that our famous orders in council proceeded on a different principle—that they constituted merely a fictitious, or what is called a paper, blockade. The answer is, that the necessity of self-defence against Bonaparte's illegal blockade was the only justification ever alleged for those orders, and that the principle of paper blockade never was asserted by us in any other way. France placed this country in a state of blockade by her Berlin and Milan decrees; and the orders in council which followed were always held by Sir William Scott to be merely retaliatory measures, and to be justifiable in no other light whatever. On the subject of blockade, I beg to cite the opinion of this most learned and experienced judge in the year 1814, delivered in the case of the *Rathbone*, and to be found in the sixth volume of Sir Christopher Robinson's Admiralty Reports,—long after all these questions had become of familiar acquaintance by repeated occurrence. Sir William Scott said, "It is illegal and no blockade, unless the belligerent has the means of drawing an arch round the mouth of the port and effectually securing it." Now, why (it will be said) should such a master of diction as well as of the law talk about "drawing an arch," and not say "drawing a circle" round the port? That is explained by what immediately follows, because he adds, "if any one point of that arch fail, if the prevention be not perfect and complete, the whole blockade is gone, it all crumbles to pieces." It is also, he adds, necessary, to perfect a blockade, that there should be not only an efficient force, but that there should be, in point of time, a continuance of the force in the neighbourhood of the place blockaded.

Now, such being the law on the point, and such the limitation of the belligerent right to blockade any station, I will ask, how we bring ourselves within the principle,—how we have this right,—admitting us to be belligerents? Had we anything like the arch marked out? Had we any chain or line of ships on the coast of Spain? Nothing of the kind. The pretended blockade, that is, the operation of the order, extends from the Pyrenees to the Gut of Gibraltar. The instructions direct the stoppage of vessels laden with warlike stores on the coast of Valencia, and Murcia, and Grenada, as well as of Catalonia and Biscay. Have we a force afloat in those seas sufficient to maintain such a blockade as that? I apprehend no man will contend we have. If, therefore, we even were belligerents, and clothed with

all belligerent rights, according to the doctrine laid down by Sir Wm. Scott the thing we have done is illegal.

I need hardly give any precedents on this point. But there is one so remarkable as to merit attention. Soon after the revolution, namely, in the year 1689, when this country was in alliance with Holland and at war with France, we entered into a treaty with that power, by which it was agreed that all vessels carrying stores to any of the French ports, should be seized by British or Dutch cruizers, as the case might be, and made prize of. For some years this was acted upon; but on the 17th of March, 1693, two northern powers, and not of any great consideration,* entered into a counter-treaty, protesting against the course adopted by Great Britain and Holland, and binding themselves to take sufficient steps for their mutual protection. Vattel cites this case in illustration of the law; and other great authorities on the law of nations join with him in approving the conduct of the two neutrals. What was the consequence? Why, the protest of those powers produced the desired effect. Great Britain and Holland yielded at once to the representations made to them; withdrew their notice; and even made reparation to the injured states for the infraction of their mutual rights.

Now it is to be observed, that we were then clearly and incontestably at war with France; Holland was at war with France; and of course every right appertaining to a belligerent power then belong to both England and the United Provinces. Yet even in that posture of affairs, we distinctly admitted that in resorting to such a measure of belligerent right we had done wrong.

But how are we situated in the present case? We were no belligerents at all, and therefore, had not even the shadow of the shade of a title to adopt this proceeding. Was it ever before known or heard of, that because a state wished well to one of two hostile parties, or even was in alliance with that party but not at war with the other, it was therefore authorized to issue an order forbidding, under pain of capture, all neutral powers from entering the ports of one of the two belligerents in the country where the war raged? I venture to say, that, since the law of nations was first established amongst civilized men—amongst whom alone it is known—since that law first received a name—such a monstrous, such a preposterous pretension, was never before heard of.

Having a treaty with one of two belligerents, or assisting it with money, or stores, ay, or even with men, does not make us at war with the other; else the Swiss Cantons would have lived in perpetual war, instead of being for centuries notoriously at peace with all the world, and having their systematic neutrality respected by every nation, although some had always treaties with them for the hire of their troops. But the position which I have stated is recognised by every writer on public law, and needs not a word for its defence.

My lords—This is not a light or a little matter. The noble earl assumed a tone of much indignation, I find from a report of what

* Denmark and Sweden,

† The Earl of Minto.

passed t'other day, in which he is represented to have said that "he should like to know from my noble and learned friend, whether he had his information from any officer in the service, because if so, a great breach of confidence had been committed." I certainly do not comprehend, and I doubt whether the noble earl himself very distinctly comprehends, what all this bluster meant. I am at a loss to understand the nature of those instructions, which are so very confidential, and yet must be executed by hundreds of sailors and marines against all neutral crews. I wish to heaven the order had been of a private and confidential nature—as private and confidential as the Oxford and Cambridge libels, which were mentioned last night to have been found in the repositories of the author, and never published or communicated. This order ought to have been so confidential as never to have left the desk—a profound secret between the noble earl and himself; such a misshapen abortion never should have seen the light.

But it is something new to hear of confidential instructions, not secret orders sealed up and addressed to the captain of a frigate, only to be opened when he arrives at a certain degree of longitude and latitude; but instructions to be acted on immediately they are received. Why, the moment the order is notified to the captain of a frigate with 500 or 600 men on board, it probably becomes a matter of notoriety to every one of them, as all of them are to carry it into execution; but it becomes, at all events, a matter of public notoriety the instant an attempt is made to enforce the order by warning neutral vessels. Did the noble earl suppose all the Sardinian crews were to keep his profound secret?

But why, I wish to know (for I must needs assume the fact, after this censure upon the captains who are said to have told the story), why were these confidential orders kept back from the neutral powers against whom they were levelled? Why were not the Sardinians, why were not the Dutch, made acquainted with these instructions? Why was that knowledge withheld from them who had the undoubted right first of all to receive notice? Even had we been at war with Don Carlos and clothed with every belligerent right, instead of being mere lawless interlopers, it was our bounden duty to give all neutrals full notice of the resolution to forbid their communication with that prince. This duty is never neglected, even *flagrante bello*, and for most obvious reasons. The neutrals are, in consequence of their ignorance, induced to freight vessels with stores; for no human imagination could possibly foresee that instructions of such a description would come from any mortal being that ever presided over the admiralty, or occupied a seat at a board. In this unavoidable ignorance neutral powers are induced to load their vessels with stores; they fare forth from their ports; they cross the seas only to reap disappointment when they approach their destination and discover the incredible fact that England, though no belligerent, has blockaded the Spanish coast. I should like to know how we would have relished a similar proceeding on the part of Holland or Piedmont. We send arms and ammunition to Spain for the use of the queen—what should we have said if a

Sardinian or a Dutch cruizer had warned our frigates off the coast, because the courts of Turin or the Hague had become well-wishers of Don Carlos, and resolved to let no one help his adversary and his niece? I don't apprehend any frigate of ours would have sailed quietly back to reland her cargo at the Tower. I must express my satisfaction that no accident should have happened in consequence of this unheard-of proceeding, during the last two years. It is a good fortune we had little right to expect. But nevertheless, those instructions are an aggression upon neutral rights, and a manifest violation of the law of nations; and they put in jeopardy the peace both of this country and of Europe.

These are the reasons, thus shortly stated, which made it quite impossible that I should hold my peace and not ask any question. These are the reasons which make me deeply lament that the questions I have ventured to ask should have been so unsatisfactorily answered. For these reasons I greatly rejoice that we have had an opportunity of arresting the course of government in this unlawful direction, when otherwise it might be too late to interfere, except for the sake of example and punishment. But, also, these are the reasons which make me apprehensive that mischief may still be wrought, unless the illegal instructions are revoked without any delay.

I will suppose a case—we cannot tell into what ramifications the treaties among the Italian and German States may have carried their various connections—we cannot answer for what conventions may now bind other powers, though we know what obligations bind ourselves. The states who formed the Quadruple Alliance, to which I myself was a party, never dreamt of anything in the slightest degree resembling an interference with neutral nations or their rights. So far from it, that one of the powers, the King of the French, was bound by the treaty to prevent any arms, or ammunition, or other assistance being furnished to Don Carlos from the French territory, which, of course, he had a perfect right to do; but not a word was said about stopping any neutral powers from lending their assistance to the Spanish prince.

But I will just put this case. It is a well-known fact that certain powers who were not parties to the Quadruple Alliance viewed its arrangements with an evil eye. Now, I never yet saw an instance of a treaty being concluded by some states, and jealously eyed by others, that it did not give rise to different treaties among those others. Nations, like individuals, act in the spirit of Mr. Burke's famous aphorism—"When bad men combine, good men must associate." The powers who did not unite with us in forming the Quadripartite Alliance naturally enough looked upon it as a combination for bad purposes, because it was for purposes which they disapproved; and they said, "When these four are combining for their wrongful ends, we must associate for our own legitimate objects." Hence I argue, that it is eminently probable some treaties may have arisen out of the Quadripartite Alliance. I will suppose Sardinia to be party to some such treaty. She is a weak state, and we do not care how we

treat her; but no, I will not suppose that this can make any difference in our conduct; for I well remember that when I urged my noble friend* to put down the horrid slave-trade carried on by Portugal, a state under our entire control, he met my application by saying—"Oh! Portugal is so very weak that although we could immediately stop her slave-trade with a single word, yet nothing could be more indelicate than such an interference; if it had been France, or Russia, or Prussia, or Austria, then you should have seen how differently I should have behaved"—reminding me very strongly of an answer made by a great Bourbon monarch, fond of the chase, but not endued with the boldness hereditary in his illustrious house, who being observed, while shooting, to change colour and run away from something, when told it was only a dog or pig that had jumped through the hedge, exclaimed with much energy, "Oh, yes! I know it was; but if it had been a lion, then you would have seen what a reception I should have given him." Just so, her Majesty's government could not think of coercing a poor little thing like Portugal, but if it had been France or Austria, then, indeed, we should have seen what they would have done to put down the slave traffic. Therefore I have no right to assume that the circumstance of Sardinia being a weak power can have made the least difference; but I will suppose that Sardinia may have put herself under the protection of her powerful neighbour, Austria. What if a defensive alliance subsists between Austria and Sardinia? What if such a treaty of mutual defence actually exists? What if it be now acted on? What if I have some reason to believe this untoward circumstance? What if I know it for a fact to be true? There *is* a defensive alliance between Austria and Sardinia; there *is* a treaty which binds Austria to make common cause with Sardinia whenever she is involved in war—to take her part whoever attacks her. If it be said that this treaty has been made since those instructions were issued, I answer that their production will at once put a stop to any surmise about the date; but I believe it was some time before the instructions.

I must add that, according to the law of nations, Austria is perfectly justified in forming a defensive alliance with Sardinia, and, if she pleases, in keeping it a secret. An offensive alliance is a perfectly different thing. An offensive alliance is an aggression in itself; it contemplates hostilities; it prepares for them; it leads to war; and it is therefore abhorred, and justly abhorred, by the law of nations. But defensive alliances are the objects of peculiar favour with that law; they throw the shield of the strong over the weak; they make aggression more dangerous, and war less likely. A defensive alliance does not lead to the great national felony of war—the great crime, of all crimes the worst, because it involves all the other offences in its accursed nature. Treaties for defence are virtuous in their origin, founded in the sacred right of self-defence—they are salutary in their operation, combining the strong for the protection of the weak, or

* Lord Glenelg.

uniting together in successful resistance to violence those who singly must have been overpowered—they are beneficent in their tendency, warding off the perils of war by augmenting the danger of aggression—they are holy in their consummation, substituting the dominion of right and law for that of force and might, and securing to nations that most blessed of all possessions, lasting peace. They are auxiliary to the very end and aim of all public law, the discouragement of violence and the establishment of legal authority. They are the especial favourites of the law, which they fortify and extend. They work out the prime object of the law, to maintain the tranquillity of the world. But if no one has a right to complain of such treaties being made, so no one has a right to murmur at their being kept secret. The wrongdoer, the aggressor, the public felon alone, against whom they are pointed, has any reason to dislike them; and for his disapproval, who cares? He alone whose wicked machinations they tend to frustrate needs be troubled by being kept in ignorance of the defensive precautions secretly taken against him, to repel his violence, or to discomfit his craft. Whoever has no designs against the public peace, has no reason to complain of a secret treaty of defence, which is only to be acted upon when he shall commit a crime. Whoever finds himself thwarted by such a treaty may naturally enough be vexed to find that he has antagonists whom he had not been prepared for; but we are no more bound to regard his complaints, than they who associate against felons of any class have to be alarmed at giving umbrage to the more vulgar but less mischievous violators of the law.

My firm belief is, that those illegal instructions have exposed us to the imminent hazard of a war with Austria, and have not only brought into contempt the honour and justice of this country, but put in jeopardy the peace of Europe and the world. I cannot conceive that any consideration will prevent your lordships from calling for the production of them. Their existence is not denied; it is your bounden duty to see that they do not bring upon us the mischiefs with which so criminal an act is pregnant. I move you that an humble address be presented to her Majesty, praying, “that she would graciously be pleased to cause the instructions given to her Majesty’s cruizers on the Spanish coast, respecting neutral vessels carrying warlike stores, to be laid before this House, with any notification of such instructions which may have been made to neutral powers.”

In meeting this motion the ministers pursued different, indeed opposite, courses. Lord Melbourne at first said nothing, except that no ground was laid for the motion, and that producing papers was always inconvenient, and might be detrimental, in some cases, to the public service. Lord Lansdowne dwelt on the like topics. Lord Minto, however, said that the treaty bound us to give such instructions, because it bound us to aid the Spanish Queen with a naval force, if necessary. His lordship further renewed his complaints against the

officers who must have given information of these instructions, and dwelt at much length on the subject of professional honour and duty. He, however, added that the issuing of the orders was not admitted; yet he assumed that their being merely issued had proved sufficient, and had accomplished the end in view without any necessity for putting them in force. The Duke of Wellington strongly condemned this construction of the treaty, and supported the motion. Lord Ripon ably and strenuously contended against the proceeding and for the production of the papers. Lord Aberdeen took the same line, and most powerfully and elaborately argued the whole question, clearly demonstrating that the treaty had not the most remote reference to any such proceeding. Lord Carnarvon also delivered an able and impressive speech on the same side, and dwelt at length upon the nature of the Spanish contest. Lord Melbourne then, a second time, addressed the House, and avowed an entire dissent from Lord Minto's construction of the treaty, holding that it in no wise bound us to any such proceeding, and that we had no right to blockade, or, it should seem, to interrupt the neutral navigation on the coasts of Spain. He repeated his complaint of the motion being inconvenient, but could not quite say, in answer to the Duke of Wellington's call, that complying with it would be detrimental to the public service. Lord Brougham, in reply, observed that this disclaimer was good for nothing as long as the instructions remained; that to talk of no ground being laid for the motion was absurd after what Lord Minto had said, both on the former and on the present occasion; that the treaty which bound us to give aid with our ships if needful, no more bound us to do an illegal act in aid of the Spanish Queen, than a contract to deliver a horse bound the party to steal one and then deliver it; that the government had no right to complain of any one for breach of confidence, seeing they themselves took credit for having attained the end in view, by merely issuing the order, which end they manifestly never could have attained without notifying that order to neutrals; and that as for the attempt now made to throw doubt upon the fact of the order having been issued, it was ridiculous after the complaint of breach of confidence, and duty, and honour,—it was as if a man were asked, "Did you steal the watch and sell it to John-a-Nokes?"—and were to answer,—"I won't tell you that, but I never will forgive John-a-Nokes, who has broken his promise to keep my secret;"—that the anger of the ministers at the unparalleled position in which they were placed, should be directed towards their own colleague, for they were vexed, not at having done wrong, but at having been found out, and it was he who had confessed; that the production of the order was further necessary to show whether another kind of illegality had not also been committed, namely, an order signed by the first lord of the admiralty, without the signature of any other lords, and the counter-signature of the secretary—which would make a bill of indemnity necessary.

Just before the division the Duke of Wellington, to whom the government had been looking for protection, said, that as Lord Minto's

interpretation of the treaty had been so distinctly given up by Lord Melbourne, he should not support the motion, and should strongly advise his friends to take the same course. Lord Brongham appealed to the opposition, whether there was the least intelligible ground for this sudden change of conduct, and strongly recommended to them the support of his motion, how candid and kindly soever the noble duke's proceedings in behalf of the government might be. Lord Mansfield, with every possible respect for the Duke of Wellington, took the same course, deeming the preservation of peace, and the maintenance of the law of nations to require the granting of this motion. Lord Ellenborough expressed himself shortly, but strongly, to the same effect. Lord Harewood said that he should withhold his support from the motion, if the government would undertake to recall the instructions, or to see that they were not acted upon. No answer was made to this offer; the division took place, and the numbers were equal—being fifty-seven for, and as many against the motion; so that, by the rule of the House of lords, *præsumitur pro negante*, it was lost. The Duke of Wellington and ten or twelve other peers had left the House. But it is evident that the illegal instructions, in defence of which no one said a single word, or, rather, which were universally admitted to be indefensible on any ground of public law, are as much a dead letter as if they never had been issued, or were recalled.

THE AFFAIRS OF IRELAND.

INTRODUCTION.

THE IRISH QUESTIONS—MR. GRATTAN—LORD GRENVILLE.

Among the illustrious persons referred to in the exordium of the following speech, as having on former occasions brought the state of Ireland before the House of Commons, Mr. Grattan stands the foremost, whether we regard the history of his political life, and the great services which he rendered his native country, or consider only the very inferior subject of his rank as an orator. He it was, who chiefly after the union supported the Catholic question when he entered the Imperial Parliament; he bore a prominent part in all the discussions of it, and of subjects connected with it, in which the House he belonged to had been engaged, up to the period of his death in 1820.

It would not be easy to point out any statesman or patriot, in any age of the world, whose fame stands higher for his public services; nor is it possible to name any one, the purity of whose reputation has been stained by so few faults, and the lustre of whose renown is dimmed by so few imperfections. From the earliest years at which he could appear upon the political stage, he devoted himself to state affairs. While yet in the prime of youth, he had achieved a victory which stands at the head of the triumphs ever won by a patriot for his country in modern times; he had effected an important revolution in the government, without violence of any kind, and had broken chains of the most degrading kind, by which the injustice and usurpation of three centuries had bound her down. Her immediate gratitude placed him in a situation of independence, which enabled him to consecrate the remainder of his days to her service, without the interruption of professional pursuits; and he continued to persevere in the same course of patriotism marked by a rare union of the moderation which springs from combined wisdom and virtue, with the firmness and the zeal which are peculiar to genius. No factious partisan, making devotion to the public cause a convenient and a safe mask for the attainment of his selfish interests, whether of sordid avarice or of crawling ambition, ever found in Grattan either an instrument or an accomplice. No true friend of the people, inspired with a generous desire of extirpating abuses, and of extending the reign of freedom, ever complained of Grattan's slowness to join the untarnished banner of patriotism. No advocate of human improvement, filled with the sacred zeal of enlarging the enjoyments or elevating the condition of mankind, was ever damped in his aspirations by Grattan's coldness, or had reason to wish him less the advocate of Ireland, and more the friend of his species.

The principal battle which he fought for his native country required him to embrace every great and difficult question of domestic policy; for the misrule and oppression exercised by England over the Irish people extended to all their commercial dealings, as well as to their political rights, and sought to fetter their trade by a complicated system of vexatious regulations, as well as to awe their legislators by an assumption of sovereignty, and to impose the fetters of a foreign jurisdiction upon the administration of justice itself. In no part of this vast and various field, were Mr. Grattan's powers found to fail, or his acquirements to prove deficient; and he handled the details of fiscal and of mercantile policy, with as much accuracy and as great address as he brought to the discussion of the broader and

easier though more momentous question—the great question of national independence. He was left, on the achievement of his great triumph, in possession of as brilliant a reputation as man could desire; and it was unsullied by any one act either of factions violence, or of personal meanness, or of the inconsistency into which overmuch vehemence in the pursuit of praiseworthy objects is wont to betray even the most virtuous men. The popular favour which he enjoyed to so unexampled a degree, and in such unmeasured profusion, was in a short time destined to suffer an interruption, not unusual in the history of popular leaders; and for refusing to join in the designs, of a more than doubtful origin, of men inferior in reputation of every kind, and of a more than doubtful honesty—men who proscribed as unworthy of the people's esteem all that acknowledged any restraints of moderation—he lived to see himself denounced by the factious, reviled by the unprincipled, and abandoned by their dupes, the bulk of the very nation whose idol he had but lately been.

The war with France, and the fear of revolutionary movements at home, rendered him for some years an alarmist; and he joined with those who supported the hostilities into which Mr. Pitt and the Portland seceders from the Whig party unhappily plunged the empire. But he carried his support of arbitrary measures at home a very short way, compared with the new allies of the government in England; and the proceedings of the Irish ministry during and after the rebellion, found in him an adversary as uncompromising as in the days of his most strenuous patriotism, and most dazzling popularity. Despairing of success by any efforts of the party in Parliament, he joined in the measure of secession adopted by the English Whigs, but after a manner far more reconcilable to a sense of public duty, as well as far more effective in itself, than the absurd and inconsistent course which they pursued, of retaining the office of representatives, while they refused to perform any of its duties, except the enjoyment of its personal privileges. Mr. Grattan and the leaders of the Irish opposition vacated their seats at once, and left their constituents to choose other delegates. When the Union was propounded, they again returned to their posts, and offered a resistance to that measure, which at first proved successful, and deferred for a year the accomplishment of a measure planned in true wisdom, though executed by most corrupt and corrupting means—a measure as necessary for the well-being of Ireland, as for the security of the empire at large. He entered the Imperial Parliament in 1805, and continued, with the exception of the question upon the renewal of the war in 1815, a constant and most powerful coadjutor of the Whig party, refusing office when they came into power upon Mr. Pitt's death, but lending them a strenuous support upon all great questions, whether of English policy or of Irish, and showing himself most conspicuously above the mean and narrow spirit that would confine a statesman's exertions to the questions which interest one portion of the empire, or with which his own fame in former times has been more peculiarly entwined.

Among the orators, as among the statesmen of his age, Mr. Grattan occupies a place in the foremost rank; and it was the age of the Pitts, the Foxes, and the Sheridans. His eloquence was of a very high order, all but of the very highest, and it was eminently original. In the constant stream of a diction replete with epigram and point—a stream on which floated gracefully, because naturally, flowers of various hues—was poured forth the closest reasoning, the most luminous statement, the most persuasive display of all the motives that could influence, and of all the details that could enlighten his audience. Often a different strain was heard, and it was declamatory and vehement—or pity was to be moved, and its pathos was touching as it was simple—or, above all, an adversary sunk in baseness, or covered with crimes, was to be punished or to be destroyed, and a storm of the most terrible invective raged, with all the blights of sarcasm, and the thunders of abuse. The critic, led away for the moment, and unable to do more than feel with the audience, could in these cases, even when he came to reflect and to judge, find nothing to reprehend; seldom in any case more than the excess of epigram, which had yet become so natural to the orator, that his argument and his narrative, and even his sagacious unfolding of principles, seem spontaneously to clothe themselves in the most pointed terseness, and most apt and felicitous antitheses. From the faults of his country's eloquence he was, generally speaking, free. Occasionally an over

fondness for vehement expression, an exaggeration of passion, or an offensive appeal to Heaven, might be noted; very rarely, a loaded use of figures, and more rarely still, of figures broken and mixed. But the perpetual striving after far-fetched quaintness; the disdaining to say any one thing in an easy and natural style; the contempt of that rule, as true in rhetoric as in conduct, that it is wise to do common things in the common way; the affectation of excessive feeling upon all things, without regard to their relative importance; the making any occasion, even the most fitted to rouse genuine and natural feeling, a mere matter of theatrical display—all these failings, by which so many oratorical reputations have been blighted among a people famous for their almost universal oratorical genius, were looked for in vain when Mr. Grattan rose, whether in the senate of his native country, or in that to which he was transferred by the Union. And if he had some peculiarity of outward appearance, as a low and awkward person, in which he resembled the first of orators, and even of manner, in which he had not like him made the defects of nature yield to severe culture; so had he one excellence of the very highest order, in which he may be truly said to have left all the orators of modern times behind—the severe abstinence which rests satisfied with striking the decisive blow in a word or two, not weakening its effects by repetition and expansion—and another excellence higher still, in which no orator of any age is his equal, the easy and copious flow of most profound, sagacious, and original principles, enumerated in terse and striking, but appropriate language. To give a sample of this latter peculiarity would be less easy, and would occupy more space; but of the former, it may be truly said that Dante himself never conjured up a striking, a pathetic, and an appropriate image in fewer words than Mr. Grattan employed to describe his relation towards Irish independence, when, alluding to its rise in 1782, and its fall twenty years later, he said, “I sat by its cradle—I followed its hearse.”

In private life he was without a stain, whether of temper or of principle; singularly amiable, as well as of unblemished purity in all the relations of family and of society; of manners as full of generosity as they were free from affectation; of conversation as much seasoned with spirit and impregnated with knowledge, as it was void of all harshness and gall. Whoever heard him in private society, and marked the calm tone of his judicious counsel, the profound wisdom of his sagacious observations, the unceasing felicity of his expressions, the constant variety and brilliancy of his illustrations, could well suppose that he had conversed with the orator whose wit and whose wisdom enlightened and guided the senate of his country; but in the playful hilarity of the companion, his unbroken serenity, his unruffled good nature, it would indeed have been a difficult thing to recognise the giant of debate, whose awful energies had been hurled, nor yet exhausted, upon the Corrys, the Duignans, and the Floods.*

The signal failure of the latter, when transplanted to the English Parliament, suggests a reference to the same passage in the life of Mr. Grattan. Men were variously inclined to conjecture upon his probable success; and the singularity of his external appearance, and his manner of speaking, as well as his action, so unusual in the English Parliament, made the event doubtful, for some time, during his speech of 1805. Nor were there wanting those surrounding Mr. Pitt, who foretold “that it would not do.” That great debater and experienced judge is said to have for some moments partaken of the doubts, when the hasty execution of some passage, not perhaps marked by the audience at large, at once dispelled them; and he pronounced to his neighbours an authoritative and decisive sentence, which the unanimous voice of the House and of the country forthwith affirmed.

* It is always a matter of difficulty to draw the character of a person who belongs to another, and, in some particulars, a very different country. This has been felt in making the attempt to give a sketch of Mr. Grattan; and whoever has read the most lively and picturesque piece of Biography that was ever given to the world, Mr. C. Phillips’ *Recollections of Curran*, will join in the regret here expressed, that the present work did not fall into hands so able to perform it in a masterly manner. The constant occupation consequent upon great professional eminence, has unfortunately withdrawn him from the walks of literature, in which he was so remarkably fitted to shine.

This illustrious patriot died a few days after his arrival in London, at the beginning of June 1820, having come with the greatest difficulty, and in a dying state, to attend his Parliamentary duties. A request was made to his family, that his remains might be buried in Westminster Abbey, instead of being conveyed for interment to Ireland; and this having been complied with, the obsequies were attended by all the more distinguished members of both houses of Parliament. The letter containing the request was signed by the leaders of the liberal party. The beauty of its chaste composition was much and justly admired at the time; but little wonder was excited by it, when the author came to be known. It proceeded from the pen of one of the greatest poets whom this country has produced, as well as one of its finest prose writers; who to this unstable fame adds the more imperishable renown of being also one of the most liberal men, and most uncompromising friends of civil and religious liberty who have appeared in any age. The rare felicity of our times, in possessing two individuals to whom this description might be applied—Rogers and Campbell—alone make it necessary to add that the former is here meant.

"Filled with veneration for the character of your father, we venture to express a wish, common to us with many of those who most admired and loved him, that what remains of him should be allowed to continue among us.

"It has pleased Divine Providence to deprive the empire of his services, while he was here in the neighbourhood of that sacred edifice where great men from all parts of the British dominions have been for ages interred. We are desirous of an opportunity of joining in the due honour to tried virtue and genius. Mr. Grattan belongs to us also, and great would be our consolation were we permitted to follow him to the grave, and to place him where he would not have been unwilling to lie—by the side of his illustrious fellow-labourers in the cause of freedom."

After Mr. Grattan it would be difficult to point out any person to whom the great and fundamental question of Irish policy, and the cause of religious liberty in general, was so much indebted as to Lord Grenville;* while in the sacrifices which he made to it, he certainly much exceeded Mr. Grattan himself. He was enabled to render this valuable service to his country, not more by his natural abilities, which were of a very high order, sound judgment, extraordinary memory, an almost preternatural power of application, and by the rich stores of knowledge which those eminent qualities had put him in possession of, than by the accidental circumstances in his previous history and present position—his long experience in office, which had tried and matured his talents in times of unexampled difficulty—his connection with Mr. Pitt, both in the kindred of blood and of place, so well fitted to conciliate the Tory party, or at all events to disarm their hostility, and lull their suspicions—above all, the well-known and steady attachment of himself and his family to the principles and the establishment of the Church of England.

When, therefore, he quitted power with Mr. Pitt in 1801, rather than abandon the Catholic emancipation, the carrying of which had only a year before been held out as one of the principal objects of the Union; and when, in 1804, he peremptorily refused to join Mr. Pitt in resuming office, unless a ministry should be formed upon a basis wide enough to comprehend the Whig party, the cause of liberal, tolerant principles, but above all, the Irish question, gained an able supporter, whose accession, whether his intrinsic or accidental qualities were considered, might justly be esteemed beyond all price. The friends of civil and religious liberty duly valued

* The plan of this work of course precludes all reference, at least all detailed reference, to the conduct and merits of living statesmen. But for this an ample field would be opened, in which to expatiate upon the transcendent services of Lord Grey, and the ample sacrifices which he made, during the greater part of his political life, to the rights and the interests of the Irish people. Lord Wellesley's services in the same cause, it is also, for the same reason, impossible to enter upon, further than to remind the reader, that after having almost begun life as the advocate of the Catholic claims, he, and after him Lord Anglesey, first set the example to succeeding viceroys, of ruling Ireland with the most perfect justice to all parties, and holding the balance of favour between Catholic and Protestant, Churchmen and Dissenter, even, with a steady hand.

this most important accession, and the distinguished statesman whom they now accounted as one of their most powerful champions, and trusted as one of their most worthy leaders, amply repaid the confidence reposed in him, by the steady and disinterested devotion which, with his characteristic integrity and firmness, he gave to the cause. Taking office with Mr. Fox, and placed at the head of the government, upon the death of that great man he peremptorily and with bare courtesy, rejected all the overtures of the King to separate from the Whigs, and rejoin his ancient allies of the Pitt school. Soon afterwards, in firm union with the remains of the Fox party, he carried the abolition of the slave trade, and retired from power, rather than bind himself not to press the Catholic emancipation upon the narrow-minded though conscientious prince whom he served. Continuing in close alliance with the Whigs, he shared with them the frowns of the court, and the habitual exclusion from office which has, for the most part, been their portion in public life. Nor can it be doubted that the perseverance with which he abided by his declared opinions in favour of the Catholic question, alone prevented him from presiding over the councils of his country, during, at the least, twenty years of his life. They who have come to the aid of the liberal cause only when its success made an adhesion to it the road to court favour, with all its accompaniments of profits and of power, have a very different account of mutual obligation to settle with their country, from that which Lord Grenville could at any time since his retirement have presented, but disdained ever even to hint at. But they who, after his powerful advocacy, his inflexible integrity, his heavy sacrifices, had all but carried the Irish question, have come forward to finish the good work, and have reaped every kind of gratification from doing their duty, instead of making a sacrifice of their interests like him, would do well, while they usurp all the glory of these successes, to recollect the men whose labours, requited with proscription, led the way to comparatively insignificant exertions, still more beneficial to the individuals, than advantageous to the community.

The endowments of this eminent statesman's mind were all of a useful and commanding sort—sound sense, steady memory, vast industry. His acquirements were in the same proportion valuable and lasting—a thorough acquaintance with business in its principles, and in its details; a complete mastery of the science of politics, as well theoretically as practically; of late years a perfect familiarity with political economy, and just appreciation of its importance; an early and most extensive knowledge of classical literature, which he improved instead of abandoning, to the close of his life; a taste formed upon those chaste models, and of which his lighter compositions, his Greek and Latin verses, bore testimony to the very last. His eloquence was of a plain, masculine, commanding cast, which neglected if it did not despise ornament, and partook in the least possible degree of fancy, while its declamation was often alike powerful with its reasoning and its statement. The faults of his character were akin to some of the excellencies which so greatly distinguished it. His firmness was apt to degenerate into obstinacy; his confidence in the principles he held were not unmixed with contempt for those who differed with him; his unbending honesty and straightforward course of dealing with all men and all subjects, not unfrequently led him to neglect those courtesies which facilitate political and personal intercourse, and that spirit of conciliation which, especially in a mixed government chiefly conducted by party, sometimes enables men to win a way which they cannot force towards the attainment of important objects. Perhaps his most unfortunate prejudices were those which he had early imbibed upon certain matters of ecclesiastical polity, and which the accidental circumstance of his connection with Oxford as Chancellor, strengthened to the exclusion of the reforming spirit carried by him into all institutions of a merely secular kind. Upon the Parliamentary constitution of the country, he had no such alarms or scruples; and although it is certain that he would have reformed it much more gradually than the long delay of the great measure rendered ultimately necessary, it is equally clear that he would have stopt short of no improvement which could be required, merely because it was a change. For he was in this greatest quality of a statesman, pre-eminently distinguished, that as he neither would yield up his judgment to the clamours of the people, nor suffer himself to be seduced by the influence of the court, so would he never submit his reason to the empire of pre-

judice, or own the supremacy of authority and tradition. "Reliqui sunt, qui mortui sunt, L. Torquatus, quem tu non tam cito rhetorem dixisses, etsi non deceret oratio, quam, ut Græci dicunt, *σολυμν*. Erant in eo plurimæ litteræ, nec eæ vulgares, sed interiores quædam et reconditæ; divina memoria, summa verborum et gravitas et elegantia: atque hæc omnia vitæ decorabat dignitas et integritas. Plena litteratæ senectutis oratio. Quanta severitas in vultu! Quantam pondus in verbis! Quam nihil non consideratum exhibat ex ore! Sileamus de isto, ne augeamus dolorem. Nam et præteritorum recordatio est acerba, et acerbior expectatio reliquorum."*

* Cicero, Brutus, 266.

S P E E C H

ON THE

ADMINISTRATION OF THE LAW IN IRELAND,

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS,

JUNE 26, 1823.

I HAVE never, sir, risen to address this House under a feeling of greater anxiety than upon the present occasion. When I recollect the vast ability on both sides of the House, which has, at different times, been employed upon subjects intimately connected with the prayer of this petition,* and the multitude of persons in Ireland who are earnestly looking to the result of the discussion; when I consider even the strength of the case committed to my charge; and more than all, when I survey the present state of the sister kingdom—it may well be supposed that I feel somewhat overawed at contemplating the task which I have deemed it my duty to undertake. The petitioners themselves have rendered the performance of it incalculably more difficult; for, whereas, when the catholic question was discussed, the affairs of Ireland, and the intolerant and injudicious scheme of policy long pursued there, had been constant matters of debate, and had been handled by the ablest men, in every different form in which they could be shaped by talents and ingenuity; and whereas the great desideratum now is, to supply an answer to this question, “What is the practical effect of that system?”—to solve this difficulty, “How do the penal laws operate in Ireland, not merely upon individuals of rank excluded from the higher offices of the state, but upon all classes, from the loftiest to the lowest?” and whereas the petitioners in the very title of their representation of grievance, complained of “inequality in the administration of the law,” yet they, who of all others, are able to give the best information—to afford the clearest solution—to stop the mouth of such as maintain that there is

* Mr. Brougham had, on a former day, presented the petition of the Roman Catholics of Ireland, complaining of unequal administration of the law, and he this night began his speech by having it entered as read.

no practical evil, by showing that justice is not equally administered, and by giving facts in detail—the petitioners, intimately acquainted with the merits of their own case, deeply feeling the grievances under which they labour, and having daily and hourly experience of the consequences of the present system, have nevertheless omitted all statement of particulars, and have confined themselves merely to general declarations. I make this a ground of complaint, certainly not from myself against the petitioners, but from myself on their behalf, because they thus send me into court, as it were, briefless, where I am required to answer all objections, without being furnished by them with the means of doing so. I am thus reduced to one of two alternatives—either I must undertake the hopeless task of again going over the ground repeatedly trodden by the greatest men; or I must attempt, what is perhaps yet more hopeless, to supply the defects in the case that has been entrusted to my hands.

I take the cause of this oversight to be this—the petitioners do not give the House credit for knowing so little of the present state of Ireland; they assume that the House knows what it does not know—that it is aware of facts which might be proved at the bar, to show that justice is not equally administered to all classes in Ireland. When parties enter a court of justice in this country, (for in this country they happily are courts of justice,) rich and poor are treated with the same impartiality. The law, thank God, is administered equally to both. But the petitioners, feeling, and well knowing the existence of the melancholy facts on which they rely, no more thought of introducing them into their statement, than any petitioner in this kingdom would take upon himself to explain and expound the excellence of our own judicial system. A petitioner in this country would never dream of telling the House that juries are not packed—that judges are decorous, and never sacrifice the rights of parties to a ribald joke—that chancellors hold even the balance of justice between protestants and catholics, episcopalians and dissenters—that here the keeper of the great seal will never think of striking a gentleman out of the commission of the peace, because he is a sectary, as has been done in Ireland—the keeper of the great seal there, admitting that in so doing he had been guilty of an act of gross injustice, and yet eight years afterwards repeating it. In England, in administering the law to a creditor against his debtor, we should never think of inquiring, whether he is or is not able to bribe an under-sheriff. In England, the king's writ runs into all parts of every county. Here there is no detached corner, no land of Goshen, where some little tyrant dares to raise his flag in defiance to the orders of his liege lord the King. Our courts are open to the poorest suppliant; and however humble or unprotected, he has an equal chance with his titled adversary; nay, though he even were addicted to sectarian opinions, instead of paying his devotions in the cathedral. The reverse of all this obtains in Ireland; and it is so well known there, that the Irish who feel the evil daily, never think of describing its details.

The petitioners are in themselves a most important class, and they represent many thousands; for the petition would have been signed by tens of thousands, had a few more days been allowed. The signatures already obtained are from persons of commanding influence, who speak the sense of six millions of his Majesty's subjects, who are strongly persuaded, that the law in Ireland is not the same as it is in England—that he would be guilty, not of extravagant flattery merely, but of intolerable mockery, of gross and ridiculous irony, who should attempt to compare the two. They feel that the law is not equally administered to all classes in point of rank; and that it is still more unequal, and still less fair and impartial, in the manner in which it is dealt out among the adherents of conflicting religious sects. From the fulness of the evidence they possess, because it is the evidence of their own senses, they have omitted the insertion of all details, giving the House credit for knowing that of which it is ignorant. The consequence is, that the petitioners, and I am sorry to say the whole people of Ireland, who really are now at your bar, have suppressed the most important facts. In the intensity of their sufferings, they have lost, as it were, the articulate language of remonstrance, and have had recourse rather to exclamations of despair, and those exclamations have been followed, in some instances, by acts of open aggression; for exclamations of despair are the forerunners of such acts, and often at too short a distance. Forerunners I perhaps ought not to say; for while I am speaking, these outrages are going on, and it is impossible for any man to be so little acquainted with these transactions, as not to be aware that I am guilty of anything but exaggeration, when I take upon myself to assert that, for the last thirty years, Ireland has never been in a more alarming state. Of what, in the first instance, do the Roman Catholic petitioners complain? They say, that the laws are in themselves unequal, and that the inequality is aggravated by the incidental circumstance, not perhaps necessarily, but naturally, connected with the inequality of the laws, of a still more grossly partial administration. In my view, a mere representation of this kind, by a large body of the king's subjects, makes a sufficient *prima facie* case. If they demand inquiry and call for redress, that alone ought to be enough to induce Parliament to lend the petitioners a favourable ear. But the House is not left to this, even in the absence of any detail on the part of the petitioners. It is only needful to consider the state of that law which, though not necessarily, naturally leads to an unequal administration, in order to persuade any one that as long as men retain their natures, the law which creates an inequality in religious sects cannot be equally administered. The law at present separates the king's subjects into two classes; it severs those who ought to be as brothers under the same paternal government, and makes them foes. The law of England views the subjects of the realm as brothers, and the king as their common parent; but the law of Ireland holds a language widely different. It marshals man against man, faction against faction, sect against sect. It employs religious tenets on the one hand to foment (if it were not to profane the word) religious animosities on the other. The law of England

esteems all men equal. It is sufficient to be born within the king's allegiance, to be entitled to all the rights the loftiest subject of the land enjoys. None are disqualified by it; and the only distinction is between natural born subjects and aliens. Such, indeed, was the liberality of our system in times which we call barbarous, but from which, in these enlightened days, it might be well to take a hint, that if a man were even an alien born, he was not deprived of the protection of the law. In Ireland, however, the law holds a directly opposite doctrine. The sect to which a man belongs—the cast of his religious opinions—the form in which he worships his Creator—are the grounds on which the law separates him from his fellows, and condemns him to endure a system of the most cruel injustice. Not only this, but on the very same grounds and with, if possible, less right—with, if possible, more impolicy—and with, if possible, greater cruelty,—it leagues him against all who hold opposite notions, as essentially, and as implacably, as his enemies are combined against him.

I will admit that great and salutary alterations have in modern times taken place. Since the year 1778, but more especially since 1793, important improvements in the code have been effected. The odious distinctions have been, in a great degree, mitigated. What remains is nothing in comparison with what has been taken away. Enough, indeed, is left to mark an absurd and ridiculous difference—absurd and ridiculous when viewed by the eye of the philosopher, but melancholy and degrading when contemplated with the eye of the politician. Enough is left for offence and insult, while nothing is accomplished for happiness and security. The right honourable the secretary for foreign affairs, who so ably, on a former occasion, and before he accepted office, supported the cause of the Roman Catholics, has well referred to the mark which the fetters, though removed, have left behind them, and to the system of extirpation which a ferocious tyrant of a former age was about to carry into effect. That system would have had, at least, more consistency in it than the one which this country has pursued towards Ireland. Our plan has had no sense or consistency. True it is that the chains have been removed; but the degradation and the insult remain, as long as a link is left to remind the sufferer of his miserable bondage. But, if the advice of the right honourable gentleman had been followed, and if the last link had been knocked off, still I should say, that as the gall of the fetter, the mark it inflicted, continues visible, justice cannot be impartially administered; because one class is thereby improperly stigmatized; and the eyes of judges, witnesses, and jurors will still detect the mark, and as long as human infirmity exists, impartial justice cannot be done. Why, then, has the wound, aggravated by the impatience of the bondman, been allowed to rankle, when it is in the power of the legislature in one moment to heal it for ever? It is powerless as a security, and infinitely prejudicial as a distinction; and as long as that hateful, that hideous distinction is preserved, so long will Ireland continue the scene of discontent and of aggression. One principle at this moment through all Ireland influences judges, jurors, magistrates, and almost every witness; the English, the humane, the equitable principle, not invented in a

dark age, nor imported from a barbarous country—not even adopted in this our day of imitative admiration, from the Holy Alliance, and supported by their legions of Cossacks, but invented in England, and adopted by a body calling itself the English Parliament. It originated in the enlightened policy of this enlightened country, in this enlightened age. It remained for the nineteenth century to see the doctrine fully established—that the law in Ireland is a respecter of persons—that it prefers one sect to another—that it will not allow men to worship God according to their consciences, or if they do, they must do it at the signal peril of forfeiting all claim to the protection of the law.

The first ground of my motion, then, is, that this petition comes full of urgent complaint, from those who both actually and virtually represent the whole body of the Roman Catholics. My second ground is, that they have just reason to complain, and that as long as the odious distinction I have described remains, justice cannot, in the nature of things and of man, be equally distributed. But I think that I shall leave the case incomplete, if I do not go somewhat into details, though I will not trouble the House with more than is absolutely necessary, intending rather to give specimens than to enter into any elaborate and systematic examination of the subject, to which I profess myself incompetent, for the reason I have assigned. It is fit, however, to mention a few facts, which I shall be prepared to prove at the bar, should the House adopt the proposition with which I intend to conclude. In all I shall now offer, the House is to consider that I am, in truth, tendering evidence; and I shall scrupulously abstain from every thing which cannot, to the best of my belief, be substantiated by legal testimony, either of witnesses or of records.

When the subject is so extensive, it is of little importance where I begin; but I will commence with one of the most material parts of it; the state of the magistracy in Ireland, by whose local jurisdictions justice should be brought home, as it were, to every man's door. It is vain to deny, that in England abuses have, from time to time, crept into this branch of the administration of the law; but various salutary acts have been passed, on the one hand, to protect magistrates acting *bona fide*, and on the other, to guard the king's subjects from malversation and misuse of a power sometimes purely discretionary. It is by no means a matter of frequent complaint in this country, that improper individuals are selected for the magistracy. With us, a rule has been laid down by the keepers of the great seal, (indeed I have seen it stated under the hand of the Lord Chancellor,) that they never will strike a person out of the commission, whatever private charges may be brought against him, unless he has been brought to trial, and convicted by the verdict of a jury. I have known an instance of a magistrate several times accused of perjury, with complaints against him by a vast majority of his fellows in the commission, whom, nevertheless, the Lord Chancellor peremptorily refused to oust, because he had been tried and acquitted, although every one who has seen how hard it is to establish such a charge must be aware that an acquittal in nowise proves the party to deserve a place upon the bench of justice.

I recollect another case in Durham, about ten years ago, where the bishop, as *custos rotulorum*, was obliged to reinstate a certain magistrate, because, though accused, he had not been brought to trial. I do not mean that this rule is applicable to Ireland. A much greater latitude of discretion is required there. Not only the present, but former chancellors, Lord Redesdale and the late Mr. Ponsonby, agreed upon this point. Upon that, indeed, I found my first observation; because, if a principle be established in England, the propriety of which no man disputes, is it not very extraordinary that by as common a consent it is allowed that this principle cannot be extended to Ireland? This fact is worth a thousand matters of mere detail. As to particular facts, a man may be misled or mistaken; but here is something that cannot deceive. A principle acted upon invariably on one side of the water is met by a diametrically opposite principle on the other; and the difference can only arise from the fact, that the stuff of which justice is composed in England is of much happier material, and more finely tempered than in Ireland. But I am not without particular facts and authorities; and I will just call the attention of the House to a few instances out of a great variety.

The late Lord Gosford, governor of the county of Armagh, on a memorable occasion, had said, that "justice had been suffered to disappear, and the supineness of the magistracy to become the common topic of conversation in every corner of the kingdom." Before I proceed further, I will just mention that the word "supineness" will often occur in what I read, and that it is to be understood as a delicate mode of expressing a disinclination to suppress violence; this violence being, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, the Orange violence against the Catholics. The late Mr. Grattan was certainly a party man. In the highest, truest, and most honourable sense, he performed what he justly considered the important duties of party; but of all members on the opposition side of the House, his authority is the most unexceptionable; because he undeviatingly observed the strictest accuracy in his details, and was little liable to the imputation of being carried away by enthusiasm. He was a man of singular candour and of great moderation; and from his entrance into public life to the close of his illustrious career, gave signal proofs of his moderation, of his extreme forbearance, nay, of his gentleness and his calmness even in the tempests of factious times. He observed, on one occasion, that the government "trifled with the northern weaver, when it sent him to a grand jury;" and he added, that "the supineness and partiality of the magistracy had been the occasion of his sufferings and his losses." Mr. Ponsonby, who had filled the office of Lord Chancellor in Ireland, and was therefore so competent to judge on the question, looking back to the time when he held the great seal, said with becoming reserve, that "the magistrates too often had been anything but what they ought to have been." Mr. Justice Day, in an address to the grand jury, charged them with "negligence, corruption, and partiality;" and the late Lord Kingston complained of some men as "a disgrace to the magistracy, deserving rather to be hanged than to be included in the

commission." The charge of Judge Fletcher, in the year 1814, is well known. It is an able and elaborate production, and next to delivering no political charge at all, the greatest merit is, to deliver one so sound in its doctrines, that these are liable to no exception. Talking of the Orange societies, he says, that "they poison the very fountains of justice," and that "even some magistrates, under their influence, have, in too many instances, violated their duty and their oaths." Thence he proceeds to observe, that such associations are most pernicious, whether consisting of Orange or Ribbonmen, adding, that under their influence petty juries have declined to do their duty. It is sufficient, he says, to see such a man displaying such a colour, to produce an utter disbelief of his testimony; and when another has stood with his hand at the bar, the display of his party badge has mitigated the murder into manslaughter. These sentiments, coming from a man discharging judicial duties, are of the highest importance. Thence he proceeds to condemn all those associations bound together by unlawful oaths, remarking, "With these Orange associations I connect all commemorations and processions producing embittering recollections and inflicting wounds upon the feelings of others. I do emphatically state it as my settled opinion, that until those associations are put down, and the arms taken from their hands, in vain will the north of Ireland expect tranquillity or peace." The learned judge goes on to censure the unlawful oaths (such as have been treated with so much respect in this House on a recent occasion) taken by the members of the associations; and of the magistrates, he says, that "some were over zealous, and some, on the contrary, were supine," and he complains that "jobbers of absentees" and "traders in false loyalty," among other unfit persons, are too often put into the commission. Eight years afterwards, the same learned judge does not appear to have found any material amendment in the magistracy; and in one of his last charges he has asserted, that the conduct of the magistracy "might ultimately drive thousands to rebellion."

A great deal has been said of late respecting a reform in the Commission of the Peace of Ireland, and twelve counties have undergone the operation. If the scheme had been executed with the same honest and zealous intention for improvement with which it was undertaken, much good might have been the result; but if I have been rightly informed, little or no advantage has been the consequence, the measure having been treated as one rather of form than of substance. I have been told (and to this point I can produce evidence at the bar) that in six counties, one hundred and fifty-two magistrates have been displaced. The number looks as if a great, sweeping, and radical change had been effected; but, in truth, the vast majority of the one hundred and fifty-two consist of absentees, English and Irish militia officers, and others incapacitated from age and sickness, and not a few by death. How many does the House think, out of the whole one hundred and fifty-two, have been really removed for reasons such as those to which the change was originally intended to apply? Only fourteen. Twenty-five have been removed in one county, and in another, fifteen; all of

whom were incapacitated for the various causes which I have named.—[Mr. Goulburn asked, across the table, to what county Mr. Brougham referred.]—The county of Monaghan; and since the question has been put, I will just add, that among those removed for being sick, or dead, or absent, or an English militia officer, or an Irish militia officer, was not Sir Harcourt Lees. He is continued in the commission. In the county and city of Dublin, Major Sirr has not been removed; and I think there is just ground to complain that he is still in the commission. It is an insult to the people of Ireland, over whom he exercised all the nameless tyrannies of the last rebellion. Even on the rule of the Lord Chancellor of England, his name ought to be instantly struck out. Nevertheless, he is allowed to be at the head of the police of Dublin; and he has told the House at the bar, that he there daily and nightly acts as one of the magistrates. Yet, in the city of Dublin itself, a jury of his country has given a verdict against him, for one of the grossest and foulest oppressions—so gross and so foul, that the oldest practitioners of our courts can find no parallel to it. The charge included in it the most base and perfidious fraud; for to eke out the measure of his injustice, and to overwhelm his victim, it was proved at the trial, that an order had been fabricated, the fabrication of which was vouched by his friend, his accomplice, his tool; the very man, in short, who had perpetrated the act of combined fraud and oppression. It was to this man that the victim had been delivered—to Major Sandys; and when Mr. Curran exclaimed, “There sits Major Sandys; if my witnesses deceive you, let Major Sirr put his friend and associate in cruelty in the box to deny it, if he can.”—Major Sirr dared not do it; and all who had ears to hear, or eyes to see, were convinced, with the jury, that Major Sirr stood self-convicted. Still he has been kept in his office—still he is employed; and two-and-twenty years afterwards, when he has grown gray in the service, he has been heard to declare at the bar of this House, “I am still on the bench of justice!” Look at the effect of these arrangements in the commitments in Ireland,—commitments made and signed by such magistrates as I have described! Melancholy to relate, there are more commitments in Ireland, taking the average of the last four years, than in England and Wales together. But how does the average stand, as to the number of convictions? Why, in those countries where law and justice are equally administered, in England and Wales, there were 43,000 commitments and 29,000 convictions; but in Ireland, with a list of commitments exceeding 45,000, the number of convictions did not exceed 16,000.

To the recorded opinions of men of talent and experience, to facts in proof before the House, and furnishing an argument still more powerful in favour of the proposition which I am supporting, I will add the memorable declaration of Lord Redesdale in the House of Peers—a declaration which admits the utmost point I can contend for. What has Lord Redesdale, once the Lord High Chancellor of Ireland, said of the state of the administration of justice in that country? Lord Redesdale is not a man incautiously liberal of opinion. He is not likely to be the friend of hasty innovation. He cannot be suspected

for the patron of unfounded complaints. He is rather one of those who will shut his eyes to any little irregularities in a system of which, in the main, he approves,—who probably will only speak out when he finds abuses growing so enormous, that no man can continue to hold his peace under them, and so impudent, at the same time, that but from open denunciation, no termination of them can be expected. What, in spite of habit, or possible lurking prejudice, what is the opinion of Lord Redesdale, delivered only in July last, upon the state of the law in Ireland? His lordship has said this:—"I have been intimately connected with that ill-fated country for the last twenty years; and I am sorry to say, that there exists in it two sorts of justice—the one for the rich, the other for the poor—both equally ill administered." And this was the effect of twenty years' experience upon the mind of the highest law officer (an Englishman too) in Ireland. This fact, standing by itself, is really worthy of deep consideration. I feel myself bound by it, indeed, in some measure, to proceed in this exposure. So, lest it should be supposed that Lord Redesdale has suffered from his long intimacy with Ireland, that from living there he has become infected with the spirit of complaint which pervades an ill-governed land, that communication has, as it were, tainted him with the disposition to remonstrate, which, somehow or other, seems to have become epidemic among the whole people of Ireland; I will adduce a few examples in support of the noble and learned lord's declaration; and I will show, beyond the possibility of quibble, that the fact is distinctly as he has stated it.

In a country which enjoys the blessings of trial by jury, the manner in which juries are selected is a point of no slight importance. Now, excepting in the counties where the sheriffs are elected by the judges, in all corporations, (these corporations being formed of men full of prejudice against the catholics, open to papists certainly by law, but shut against them with all the obstinacy of bigotry by practice) in all corporate towns, the sheriff who chooses the juries is himself the selected creature of that select and prejudiced body. I am not about to enter into the late affair of the sheriff of Dublin, but I will remind the House of an incident not relating to the present sheriff. A gentleman of the name of Dillon M'Namara, an attorney of many years standing, was summoned upon the late inquiry; and, by way of discrediting his evidence, the following questions were put to him: "Did you not some years ago offer a bribe to a sub-sheriff of Dublin, if he would pack a jury to get off a client of yours, who was going to be tried for forgery?" Answer, "Yes, I did."—"Did he pack the jury?" Answer, "No, he could not, because the panel was up at the castle."—"Did not the sub-sheriff, it will be asked, indignantly reject the bribe? Did he not treat the offer as every sub-sheriff of every county in England would treat it, and get no thanks or credit for so treating it neither?" Mr. M'Namara's answer as to that point made no mention of indignation; he simply stated the conduct of the sheriff. The sub-sheriff said, that if he wished to do the thing, "it was not in his power, because the panel was gone up to the castle." But the thing, good as

it was, became better still, as the questions went on. Question, "Did not the sub-sheriff reject the bribe?" Mr. M'Namara would not say he rejected it. Question, "Why did he not get the bribe?" Answer, "Because he did not do what I wanted him to do." This was not, I submit, exactly the kind of dialogue which would have taken place between an attorney and a sub-sheriff in England, upon the subject of packing a jury. I will not say, that the man who would pack one jury to acquit a prisoner of felony, would as readily pack another to convict a prisoner of high treason, or of libel; but it would not be too much to suggest, that there is a point in money matters, to which, if the briber could manage to go, he might possibly find access to the ear of the sub-sheriff, even although he should wish to secure a conviction for an offence of a graver character. Again, I will say nothing against the sub-sheriff in question. That individual did not, it appeared, receive the bribe. But, there is the fact before the House, that such a bargain has been openly talked of. There stood a respectable solicitor at the bar of the House, from whose answers I am entitled to conclude, and in my conscience I do believe the fact to be so, that in the eyes of the persons who fill those relative situations in Ireland, the idea of an attorney's offering to bribe a sub-sheriff, or of a sub-sheriff being bribed by an attorney to pack a convenient jury, does not excite the horror and surprise which the bare mention of such a project could not fail to produce in England. But I will go farther upon the point, for it will allow me to go farther. Suppose it possible for such a proposition to be listened to in this country—suppose the possibility of such an offer being made, and even accepted—suppose there were attorneys in England who would put such arts in practice if they dared, with a view either to their own advantage, or to the safety of their clients; still, this possibility admitted—leaves another impossibility behind,—no English attorney would ever talk of such a matter as it has been talked of by the gentleman lately examined at your bar. Such a man, although himself destitute of honest or honourable feelings, would be aware of the existence of those feelings in the hearts of those among whom he moved, and would have prudence enough to perceive, that if his interests had been aided by the transaction, his character was not at all likely to be assisted by its publicity.

But this example, though it shows much, shows nothing like the whole. What will the house say to another practice, which I can prove by competent witnesses to exist in Dublin universally, of the sub-sheriff, whose duty it is to summon the juries, being in the habit of receiving from persons liable to serve, a fee of a guinea a-year, to refrain from calling on them to perform their duty? So that those men to whom it is convenient to pay a guinea a-year, do not serve on juries at all; while those who cannot afford to pay the guinea, are compelled to do double duty, and those who wish to serve, are, by not paying the guinea, obliged to serve more frequently than comes to their turn. And this precious practice is not peculiar to Dublin: the provinces have the benefit of it as well as the capital. But the fee in country places certainly is less—being half-a-guinea a-year, not a

guinea. So that the superior classes, who are best calculated to act as jurymen, give up, unless where they choose to act, the duty altogether; and it falls into the hands of persons who, whatever their merits, are probably less competent and enlightened, and, from their situations, more open to be influenced. To say the least of this practice, it is improper, indecent, and such as in England could not be tolerated for an hour.

But this point becomes insignificant when compared with that which I shall next bring forward. I have already said that the king's writ does not run through Ireland. Of this fact, that it does not reach equally to all classes of persons, I am ready to give evidence at the bar. I can show, that where a man has money for the purpose, he regularly bribes the sub-sheriff, as soon as that officer comes into place, and agrees to pay him all fees upon writs out against him for debt, as though such writs were formally served, provided the sheriff will give him timely notice of the issuing of such writs; no doubt, that he may be enabled at once to appear, and do justice to his creditor! To the poor man of course, this indulgence does not extend—he is taken with all the rigour of the law, and full justice is executed upon him. I say, that I can prove this at the bar; but, in fact, it has been proved within the last three days before a committee above stairs. I will read a note to the House of the evidence upon the subject; and I will venture to say, that but for the painful truths which it establishes the document would be amusing. It was an attorney of respectability who spoke, giving his evidence on the 29d of the present month. Question. “Do you regard the difficulty of obtaining money in Ireland after judgment, as one of the obstacles to English capital being carried to that country?” Answer. “Certainly I do; and it is one of the greatest evils we have to contend with.” Question. “How does it arise?” Answer. “In the management of the office of sheriff; there is no such thing as executing a writ as you do it in England. I mean to confine this to executing it upon persons having the rank and means of gentlemen; and the city of Dublin and the county of Cork are exceptions to the rule. In other places, it is the habit, upon the appointment of a sub-sheriff, that he gets notice that he will be paid his fees upon writs delivered, if he gives notice to the party that the writ is about to issue.” Question. “Does this practice prevail generally?” Answer. “I understand it to prevail everywhere, except in Cork county and Dublin city; but I daresay there are places even in Cork, where an arrangement might be made with the sheriff.” Question. “Is the committee to understand, that a different practice prevails with respect to poor debtors?” Answer. “I suppose that the sheriff, not being paid for any favour to them, does not show any.” (Some laughter was here prevalent in the House.) Why, yes, this is sport to the House, but it is ruin to the poor creditors in Ireland. Let honourable members just look what this “favour” goes to produce. A man may have £20,000 in the English funds, or in any investment which the law does not reach; he may be living in Ireland in the midst of luxury and magnificence; a hundred writs may be out against his

person; but, so long as he can bribe the sheriff to give him notice in time, he may defy his creditor, and suffer him to starve. And the evidence which I am quoting does not stop at this point. It asserts, perhaps, no more in fact than has already been stated; but it gives certain assertions in rather stronger terms. For instance—Question. “Do you mean to say, then, that there is one practice for the higher orders in Ireland, and another for the lower?” Answer. “Yes.” This is speaking pretty plain. Question. “Stricter in the one case than in the other?” Answer. “Certainly.” Is not this what Lord Redesdale had in his eye when he said, “There is one law for the rich, and another for the poor—both equally ill administered.” The evidence given by this man of practical knowledge and habits bears out, to the very letter, that which Lord Redesdale asserted.

It is to be hoped that the same abuses which are here detected at every step do not reach to the higher branches of the administration of justice; but it is fit to remember, that so long as the present disabilities exist, so long the judge who tries the question between the catholic and protestant, must himself be a member of the protestant establishment; so long, in despite of individual talent or popularity, all rank at the bar, and all advantages attendant upon rank—such as weight with the court, and general influence in society—all this must belong to a favoured class, and to a class which is looking up for favours in future. It is from this favoured class still that the sheriff is chosen. It is the sheriff who has the summoning, by his office, of the juries. And when it stands proved that a sub-sheriff may be hired to pack a jury, and that it is every day's practice for a sub-sheriff to be bribed for permitting the debtor to escape from his creditor, is it unfair to insinuate, that possibly a protestant sub-sheriff may be found, as accessible to political prejudices, or feelings of religious conformity, as to the meaner motive of a paltry present advantage arising from a bribe in the shape of ready money? With respect to the bench of Ireland, I have little to say. Different countries have different usages; and circumstances may happen, as matters of course, in one, which may be held highly reprehensible and indecent in another. I shall, however, freely avail myself of my privilege as a member of Parliament, to express my disapprobation of any judge's conduct, when I consider that conduct to be unbecoming his high station. If a judge is bound at all times to maintain the dignity of his exalted office—if impartiality is the very essence of the performance of judicial duty, and without which no judge can be worthy of the name—surely, any mixture in party dissensions, any partisanship in religious or in political disputes, anything like entering into the detail of class differences and arrangements, anything approaching, however distantly, to becoming the tool of a particular faction, would be that sort of stain from which, above all others, the ermine ought most immediately to be purged and cleared. For, first, such interference touches a judge's dignity; secondly, it renders his impartiality suspicious; and, thirdly, it goes to shake that respect which is due to every just and dignified magistrate—that respect which, if any magistrate forfeits

by his misconduct, the sooner he vacates his office the better; the sooner that balance is wrested from him which he can no longer be expected to hold fairly—the sooner he drops that sword which none will give him credit for wielding usefully—the better for the community and for the law. When once he has rendered it impossible for the public to view him with confidence and respect, he cannot too soon lay down an authority, the mere insignia of which are entitled to veneration. I now name Lord Norbury, in right of my privilege as a member of Parliament—that privilege which entitles me to speak my opinion upon judges as freely and unreservedly as upon sheriffs or sub-sheriffs, upon attorneys, or upon the meanest of his Majesty's subjects—no just judge will ever object to such a proceeding—no judge will be found just long after the privilege so to proceed is abolished. Our judges in England are just, because they dare not perpetrate injustice; and as long as judges are men, they will dare to perpetrate injustice the moment the power of taxing them with it is lost. More than a year has elapsed since I laid before the House a letter addressed by Mr. Saurin, the late attorney-general for Ireland, to Lord Norbury, the chief justice of the Court of Common Pleas in that country—a letter containing such a proposition as no judge who sits in England would allow his most intimate, his dearest bosom friend, to make to him. I will venture to affirm, that if a letter like that of which I am speaking, had reached any one of the learned judges of England, if it had come from any individual of high station, the more sudden, the more instant would have been the flash of that reverend person's indignation. If it had come from a near friend, the task to perform would have been harder, but the name of friend would have ceased to belong from that moment to the writer. But here, a year has elapsed since the letter in question was brought forward, and yet Mr. Saurin has not denied it, nor has Lord Norbury produced his answer. What would have been the answer of an English judge to such a letter? "I return your proposition; you know not the man whom you have dared to insult." But Lord Norbury has given no answer, or he has produced none. I trust that the answer has not been an answer of assent; but certainly it has not been such an answer as would have been given to such a proposal in England, or England and Ireland too would long since have been made acquainted with it.

Good God! Let the House consider what that letter called upon lord Norbury to do. To job—to intrigue—for political purposes—upon his circuit! Carrying the ermine upon his breast, and the sword of justice in his hand, he was called upon, by the first law officer of the Crown, to prostitute the authority with which those emblems invested him, to the purposes of a political faction. I am told "it is the custom"—a custom more honoured in the breach than in the observance—"it is the custom for you on the circuit to receive the country gentlemen in your private room, and to talk to them familiarly upon political subjects;" and this is to furnish his lordship with an opportunity of doing good to "the cause." It appears that he was in the habit of talking thus to the gentlemen of Philipstown; and, if he could impress

upon them the consequences of granting the catholic emancipation, they would certainly elect catholic members of Parliament—a consequence, by the way, most absurdly predicted; for there is scarcely a man in England who can believe that, if catholic emancipation were granted on the instant, all the Irish members returned would be catholics; but, if he could impress upon the country gentlemen, that all the members returned would be catholics, “and that those members would have the nomination of the sheriffs, and in many instances perhaps of the judges,” I do not see how he will satisfy them that “they could scarce live in the country, if the measure were passed.” So, here is a judge desired to take the opportunity of his circuit to deliver this lecture at place after place as he moves on; and to throw in suggestions, moreover, of such corruption in the general legislation and government, as may enable the catholic members returned by the catholic voters to go up to the treasury, and say, “make such and such men judges.” The people of Ireland are to be told, and told by a judge, that judges may be appointed by political intrigue. Here is Lord Norbury instructed openly to decry the purity of that justice, of which he himself ought to have been the example and the ornament. He is to say first, that the judges are corruptly appointed; and next, that they act corruptly after their appointment.

The information contained in the remaining portion of the letter runs thus:—If protestant gentlemen, who have votes, and influence, and interest, would give these venal members to understand that, by betraying their country and its constitution, they will infallibly lose their authority, it would alter their conduct, though it could neither make them honest nor respectable.” Honest nor respectable! “If,” concluded the attorney-general for Ireland, “you will judiciously administer a little of this medicine to the King’s county, or any other member of Parliament that may fall in your way, you will deserve well.” As some vindication, however, of Mr. Saurin, for having presumed to write such a letter as this, I have now to read a statement to the House, which I have found in a Dublin newspaper, under the head of “Lord Norbury’s newest joke;” and from this statement, it appears that his lordship—sitting on the bench—has reflected upon a right honourable gentleman, a member of the House, and also, that for the sake of getting at his joke,—so much dearer was jest than justice to the noble judge—he has actually refused a rule which ought to have been granted as a matter of course, and which no man could have asked for in England without obtaining it. The circumstance out of which the joke arose was this:—A barrister moved for a criminal information against a half-pay officer, who insulted him in court. The officer was offended at something which the counsel had said of him in court, and he used language which, in England, would have made a criminal information a matter of ordinary routine. Lord Norbury, however, refused the rule, and refused it in the following terms:—The motion having been made, and the offensive words stated, his lordship said —“I remember when, if the words had been used to me, I should not have been at a loss in supplying an innuendo. The phrase has certainly a

somewhat gladiatorial sound. No man respects or loves the bar more than I do; but great allowance is to be made for the chivalrous propensities of men of the sword. They do not, as Hamlet says in the play, 'set their lives at a pin's fee.'" What was this, from a judge on the bench, but saying, "you are a paltry fellow for coming here to me for protection; you know what the man wants, he wants you to go out and fight with him; and why don't you do it?" "On the other hand," his lordship continued, "the gentlemen of the bar have a repugnance to the arrest of that fell sergeant, Death." Why, is it not clear that the rule was refused just for the opportunity to introduce this wretched ribaldry? "From which profession," the Lord Chief Justice proceeded, "the immortal bard drew his illustration, I shall leave to the commentators. *Cedant arma togæ* is good Latin and good law; but I am a friend to conciliation, and shall give a triumph to neither party. I mean no allusion. (Loud laughter.)" Ay, "loud laughter" were the very words which followed the conclusion of this jest; and for the sake of the "loud laughter," no doubt it was, that the poor lawyer was refused his rule. I venerate the bench. I have a professional regard for it. I believe that no lawyer has ever shown a greater disinclination than myself to countenance reflections upon the conduct of judges, either in the course of legal practice or in the transactions of Parliament. But, I revere the bench only so long as the bench respects itself; and when I meet with intrigue where I am entitled to expect purity—low ribaldry and flightiness where there ought to be dignity—and duty sacrificed, in the course of a legal proceeding, for the silly vanity of uttering a trumpery jest—when I find a judge conducting himself in this manner—and when I find manifest proof, moreover, that this judge is not above being tampered with by a Crown lawyer for party—I might say for corrupt purposes—when I see such a spectacle as this, my veneration for the individual is gone, and even my patience is not proof against the contemplation of such impropriety. I declare that, for myself, I know of but one opinion upon this subject. I have talked with different members of the legal profession; I have discussed the matter with men of all parties, of all ranks, of all standings; and I have found in the profession, as well as out of it, but one opinion upon the point—but one sentiment of disgust at the attempted intrigue of Mr. Saurin; an attempt which Lord Norbury, if he has not lent assistance to it, has certainly not treated in the way in which an English judge would have found himself compelled, but would most willingly have hastened, to treat it.

Upon a variety of other topics, connected with the ill administration of justice in Ireland, I will detain the House but a short time. In general, it is sufficient to state the practice as it exists, and each particular case furnishes sufficiently its own comment. In this condition stand the three systems of the civil bills, the revenue boards, and the assistant barristers. For the civil bill system it is scarce necessary to go beyond the records of the House. Act after act has been passed upon the subject, each admitting the faults or abuses let in by that which went before it. For the revenue boards, their whole construc-

tion carries abuse or mischief upon the face of it; the same individual adjudging forfeiture one moment, and claiming the benefit of it for his own advantage the next; and control over the liberties and properties of the king's subjects is committed to the hands of men without a qualification which would fit them to exercise it. But, though I have not exhausted the subject, yet the subject has exhausted me. I can only go so much farther as to beg the House would remember, that matters in Ireland cannot rest as they are for ever. One day or other the time must come, and the House will have to give an account of its stewardship of that country. England possessing Ireland, is in the possession of that which ought to be her security in peace, and her sinew in war; and yet, in war, what has Ireland been but a strength to our enemies; what in peace but an eternal source of revolt and rebellion and strife with ourselves? Ireland, with a territory of immense extent, with a soil of almost unrivalled fertility, with a climate more genial than our own, with an immense population of strong-built hardy labourers—men suited alike to fill up the ranks of our armies in war, or for employment at home in the works of agriculture or manufactures;—Ireland, with all these blessings, which Providence has so profusely showered into her lap, has been under our stewardship for the last hundred and twenty years; but our solicitude for her has appeared only in those hours of danger, when we apprehended the possibility of her joining our enemies, or when, having no enemy abroad to contend with, she raised her standard, perhaps in despair, and we trembled for our own existence. It cannot be denied that the sole object of England has been to render Ireland a safe neighbour. We have been stewards over her for this long period of time. I repeat, that we shall one day have to give an account of our stewardship—a black account it will be, but it must be forthcoming. What have we done for the country which we are bound to aid, to protect, and to cherish? In our hands, her population seems a curse to her rather than a blessing. They are a wretched, suffering, degraded race—without a motive for exertion—starving in the midst of plenty. But, wretched as they are, they will not be content to remain so. They now demand justice. They call for it at your hands; and they are ready to prove their grievances. In fact, they have proved already the scandalous and unequal administration of the laws. In England, justice is delayed; but, thank Heaven, it can never be sold. In Ireland, it is sold to the rich, refused to the poor, delayed to all. It is in vain to disguise the fact; it is in vain to shun the disclosure of the truth. We stand, as regards Ireland, upon the brink of a precipice. Things cannot remain as they are. They must either get better or get worse. I hope—I trust—that such an interval may yet be granted, as will allow time for measures—and they must be sweeping ones—of reformation; but, if that interval is neglected, frightful indeed are the consequences which will ensue. I may be wrong in this prediction. But, if I am wrong, I do not stand alone. I am backed in what I say by the spirit of the wisest laws—by the opinions of the most famous men of former ages. If I err, I err in company with the best

judgments of our own time; I err with the common sense of the whole world, with the very decrees of Providence to support me. We are driving six millions of people to despair, to madness. What results can reasonably be expected from such blind obstinacy and injustice? It will not do for honourable gentlemen to meet this case with their old flimsy defences and evasions. Excuse after excuse we have had, for refusing to do that unhappy country justice; but the old excuses will not do—they will apply no longer—they cannot any more be even tried.

At one period, we could not listen to the catholics, from an apprehension of Buonaparte; at another period, the question was abandoned for fear of breaking down a strong administration; on a third occasion, the claimants were met with "the scruples of the monarch." Buonaparte has since died upon the rock of St. Helena, in solitary confinement and unnecessary torture. The English monarch, too, has gone to his great account. There are no scruples in the present king's breast which weigh against the interests of Ireland. Two objections, therefore, to the claims of the catholics, are, by the mere lapse of time, completely got rid of; and for the third—the danger of breaking down a strong administration—it will be admitted, on all hands, that we run very little hazard just now of doing anything of that kind. To attempt any course with Ireland short of a complete redress of grievances, will be a mockery of the evils under which she is suffering; but the greatest mockery of all—the most intolerable insult—the course of peculiar exasperation—against which I chiefly caution the House, is the undertaking to cure the distress under which she labours, by anything in the shape of new penal enactments. It is in these enactments alone that we have ever shown our liberality to Ireland. She has received penal laws from the hands of England, almost as plentifully as she has received blessings from the hands of Providence. What have these laws done? Checked her turbulence, but not stifled it. The grievance remaining perpetual, the complaint can only be postponed. We may load her with chains, but in doing so we shall not better her condition. By coercion we may goad her on to fury; but by coercion we shall not break her spirit. She will rise up and break the fetters we impose, and arm herself for deadly violence with their fragments. If the government is desirous to restore tranquillity to Ireland, it must learn to prefer the hearts of the Irish people to the applauses of the Orange lodges. The warm-hearted disposition of that people—their desire for the maintenance of cordiality and good feeling—have been sufficiently evinced during his Majesty's recent visit to Ireland. What will not be the reception which they will give to their representatives for benefits actually conferred? But I am afraid to trust myself with the idea of a prospect, which I fear it will never be my good fortune in reality to behold; I believe I must come back to my sad original demand—those rights of common justice, that equal administration of law, from which Ireland is the only portion of Great Britain that is excluded. To do wrong to their subjects, in some instances at least, is the ordinary frailty of govern-

ments. To deny the wrong, upon complaint being made, is not uncommon; but to deny the fact, and therefore to refuse justice, and, upon a re-assertion of the matter of complaint, to say—"I deny the grievance—I refuse redress—I know that you offer to prove it, but I did not do the wrong, and will not consent to any inquiry"—what is this but adding to injury and oppression mockery and insult? But, whatever the House may do, I have performed my duty. I have released myself from my share of the responsibility, as to the sufferings of Ireland. If the inquiry which I ask for shall be refused, I shall most deeply deplore it. But the satisfaction will remain to me, that I have urged the House to its duty, and have omitted no arguments which I thought available, to induce you to the adoption of those measures, without which, on my conscience, I believe there can neither be peace for Ireland, nor safety for the empire. I now move you, "That the petition of the Roman Catholics of Ireland, complaining of inequality in the administration of the law, be referred to the grand committee for courts of justice."*

* This speech is the one alluded to by Mr. Wilberforce, in a passage of his diary, cited in the life lately published by his sons, in these terms, (vol. v, p. 186) —"June 23. Brougham's speech quite thundering in the peroration—magnificent but very unjust declamation on great abuses of Irish administration of justice." Nothing, however, can be more correct than the statements of the speech in point of fact. The evil state of the Irish judicial system was a thing quite inevitable, while the whole bench, and all the executive offices of justice, from the high sheriffs down to the lowest tipstiffs, were filled by the dominant sect exclusively—when every catholic was tried by his adversary, and all the process of the law, as well as the impannelling of juries, was executed against him by his political and religious antagonists. Nothing in such a state of things could possibly prevent the grossest abuses and the most grievous perversions of the law, unless, indeed, we suppose the Irish to be of a different nature from all the rest of mankind. This is manifest, even without resorting to Lord Redeadale's celebrated dictum, that in Ireland there was one law for the rich, and another for the poor—a dictum, respecting the accurate reporting of which a doubt has since been raised.

R E P L Y .

UNLESS I shall trouble the House with a few words in reply to what has fallen from the right honourable gentleman,* both myself and the case committed to my care will be placed in an extremely unfair position; and the House itself, or at least a large portion of it, will have reason to complain of being driven to a decision in the dark, upon a question of the utmost importance. It must be observed, that when I addressed the House at an early period of the evening, I spoke to a different audience from the one which has just heard the right honourable gentleman's speech. The effect of this is most unfair, if I do not reply. Would not any one, for instance, who only heard his speech, infer from the manner in which he laboured the point of Mr. Scully's pamphlet, that I had made statements from this publication? But I never made the least allusion to it. I carefully and of purpose avoided taking any one statement from it, or resting any one proposition upon its authority, although I am fully aware of its value and importance in the discussion. I have, however, to return my thanks personally to the honourable member for Galway† for the exceedingly jocose notice which he was pleased to take of my former address to you. I never remember to have noticed a more successful piece of mimicry, if I may be allowed, technically speaking, to say so, "on these or any other boards;" and I cannot help congratulating the right honourable secretary,‡ our new manager, on having been enabled to close his theatrical career for his first season, with presenting to the favour of an indulgent and discriminating public so very eminent a performer as this actor from the Irish stage proves to be.

The right honourable gentleman,§ in answering my statements respecting Lord Manners, has impeached my credit as an historian of facts, without attempting to discredit my reasonings. Let us see how this matter stands. I had stated the number of his lordship's judgments reversed to be fifty in the hundred. He states them as eleven in twenty-two. Now, this is precisely, and to a unit, the same proportion with mine—being one-half of the whole number brought under review of the superior tribunal. If, indeed, I had seriously inferred from this statement, that, on an application to the Irish Court of Chancery, there was only an even chance of obtaining a right decision, I should have been guilty of exaggeration. This, however, is matter of inference from the admitted facts, not of controverted statement; as far as it required or admitted of exposure, it had been exposed on a former evening by the solicitor-general; and I have now demonstrated

* Mr. Peel. † Mr. Martin. ‡ Mr. Canning. § Mr. Peel.

irrefragably, that in my account of the fact, which the right honourable gentleman thought fit, from an entire disregard of the particulars, to charge with inaccuracy, there was not the very slightest variation from his own statement. I might, with infinitely better reason, charge him with being ignorant of the most ordinary rules of arithmetic; but I content myself with accusing him of a total inattention to the argument he was handling, and an over anxiety to bring charges against his adversaries. I must however add, that if I admit the inference against Irish justice to be somewhat exaggerated from the equal number of affirmances and reversals, I can by no means allow that inference in favour of Lord Manners' judicial capacity, which the right honourable gentleman draws from the equal proportion of right and of wrong judgments when tried by the Court of Appeal. I freely acknowledge that I do not entertain the same profound respect for the noble lord which he professes to feel. I speak the general opinion of the English bar, at least, when I say, that as a lawyer he was unknown among us before his elevation to the bench. I have since heard him distinguish himself as a judge, a lawyer, and a politician combined in one,—a union always most inauspicious; and I confess, that if I testify so much less respect for him than I could wish, or than any kinsman of yours, sir, might have justly been deemed entitled to, it is from my recollection of his conduct on that great occasion, the Queen's case—conduct which excited indignation and disgust. Alone of all the assembled peers he thought it becoming to call that illustrious person "that woman," and in a tone, too, not easy to be forgotten. He followed up this treatment by delivering an opinion which exhibited him as a lawyer in colours not much more favourable, which raised the wonder and moved the pity of all the profession, and which drew from the learned and venerable keeper of the great seal, a remark felt by every one present as a correction and a rebuke.*

I cannot on this occasion omit all farther mention of Mr. Saurin's letter, because at every catholic meeting, and indeed in every discussion of the subject, arguments are drawn from it and reference made to it,—more particularly in the debate at the great assembly which agreed to present the petition read this evening as the origin of the present motion. Without, therefore being unreasonably fastidious, I really felt that I could not have declined all mention of this letter when I last addressed you. And why, let me ask, am I to be blamed for simply referring to an extensively published letter, as if I had first given it publicity? After it had run the gauntlet of all the newspapers in both Islands,—after it had been the established topic of discourse at every meeting for months past,—after it had become the standing dish in the Irish bill of fare wherever two or three were gathered together to partake of the political banquet, either spoken, or written, or printed, during the whole parliamentary season,—the

* Lord Manners laid it down as a matter quite of course, that "agent or not agent" is always a question of law. Lord Eldon said, "he thought everybody had known that it is always a question of fact."

right honourable gentleman comes forth with a solemn denunciation against me for merely referring to what all men have been reading and commenting upon, speaking, copying, handing about, printing, debating, attacking, defending, any time these last three months, in every place of resort all over the United Kingdom! I should at all times be the very last man in the world to sanction the publicity of any paper obtained—as I presume this letter must have been—by unfair means, and never intended by its writer to meet the public eye; and I entirely agree with the right honourable gentleman in his condemnation of those who have been concerned in obtaining the letter for the purpose of publishing it. Their conduct may not be criminal by the enactments of the law, but it is morally dishonest, and it is revolting to every honourable feeling. I go heartily along with him in reprobating all such odious practices; I hold with him that it is shameful, indecent, and abominable to encourage them; I consider it as truly detestable to hold out the encouragement of bribes for the purpose of corrupting servants, and inducing them to violate their first duty, and betray the secrets of their master, ay, and of their mistress too. I say of their mistress!—of their mistress! and not only to betray her secrets, and to steal her papers, and to purloin her letters, but to produce them for the treacherous, the foul, the execrable purpose of supporting a charge against her honour and her life, founded on the documents that have been pilfered and sold to her enemies! the proofs obtained by perfidy suborned, and larceny perpetrated!—and then to carry on a prosecution wholly grounded on matter drawn from sources so polluted, as at once insulted, disgraced, and degraded the nation—a prosecution so foul, so utterly abominable, making the sun shroud himself in darkness, as if unwilling to lend the light of day to the perpetration of such enormous wickedness!*

And by whom was this infamy enacted? By the ministers of the Crown—by the very colleagues of the right honourable gentleman who now pronounces so solemn a denunciation of all that tends to encourage servants in betraying the confidence of their masters and their mistresses. If he is sincere, as I cannot doubt he must be, in his reprobation of such vile practices, what disgust must he not feel at sitting in the same cabinet with the very men whose conduct he has so vehemently disclaimed! Not all of them indeed are touched by his disclaimer. The Secretary for Foreign Affairs,† to his great honour, early avowed the abhorrence with which that unparalleled proceeding filled him, and withdrew from all participation in it. I must also except my right honourable friend the President of the Board of Control,‡ whose upright mind would never have suffered him to hold office while so atrocious a work was doing. But with these exceptions, all the other colleagues of the right honourable gentleman,—the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who sits beside him; the Lord Chancellor Eldon, her late Majesty's ancient counsellor and

* The eclipse of the sun at the opening of the case against her Majesty.

† Mr. Canning.

‡ Mr. C. W. Wynn.

warm partisan,—all concurred in carrying on the foul business which the right honourable gentleman now so loudly and so justly reprobates. I should like to see with what countenance he meets my lord chancellor after a report of his opinion delivered this night shall have reached that noble and learned person. (Cries of “*Question*,” among the *cheers* which this remark occasioned.) Ay, you may cry *question*—you may try to change the subject—you may endeavour to bring on some other topic, when I touch a matter that cleaves to your consciences, and betrays while it stings your feelings. Yes, sir, we were ourselves parties to this degradation. We have yet a green bag in our possession, which, instead of rejecting it with horror and disgust, we received with open arms. We laid it on that table,—we entertained the subject of its foul contents,—and, but that some opportune chance occurred to prevent it, we should have raked into all the filth that it contained, with the malice, the appetite, and the fury of beings little above the condition of a fiend. It was filled with matter procured by means in comparison to which the means taken to obtain Lord Norbury’s letter rise into something of respectability. Let us not, therefore, now be so very nice on such a topic, nor so very loudly condemn those whose bad practices may have been prompted, as they are far more than sanctioned, by our own evil example.

Great stress has been laid in this debate upon my alleged misinformation as to Sir Harcourt Lees being a magistrate. I can only say that I had my information on this point from a gentleman whose authority I considered to be good. The right honourable gentleman, however, denies that the reverend baronet was ever in the commission of the peace. Suppose the fact to be so, it cannot alter the case which I did not at all connect with the statement of that circumstance. The case stands confirmed in many other points. I stated that justice is bought and sold in Ireland, and we have this now admitted by the member for Limerick, the son of one of the chief magistrates in the sister kingdom, and whose hereditary prepossessions would certainly have led him to a contrary statement, had he felt it possible to make it. I did not so much condemn the individuals as the system. I do not mean to represent Irishmen as more prone to corruption than others; but I do say, that under such a system, a set of angels, much less of Irishmen, could never be free from corruption and injustice. None of my authorities have been disputed except that of Mr. Justice Fletcher, whom the member for Galway* has described as one of the worst of judges; partial, irritable, unjust, and whom nothing in all his life became so much as the leaving it. The opinion is certainly somewhat severe; and I make no manner of doubt that there may be some passages in the honourable member’s own life which give him a knowledge of the subject, and make him an experienced authority regarding the learned judge’s judicial character.† Still I must say,

* Mr. R. Martin.

† It was supposed that Judge Fletcher had presided on the Crown side, on the

that his statement is the very contrary of all that I had hitherto heard respecting Mr. Justice Fletcher. I had always understood him to be upright, strictly impartial, and sincere in the opinions he professed. I will not now go into the question how far a judge may with propriety deliver a political charge; but I will assert that next to the merit of not having done so at all, Judge Fletcher is entitled to the praise of delivering an exceedingly good one. It is said that his opinions are opposed by those of Mr. Baron Smith. For that learned person I entertain much respect. I admit his talents, and I have nothing whatever to say against his character; but if I were to form an opinion from some of his works, which it has been my fortune to read, and also bear in mind that they proceeded from a learned judge on the bench, I confess that I should be unable to entertain a very high opinion of the soundness of his judgment; and to bring him, as an authority, into any kind of comparison with Judge Fletcher, would be entirely out of the question. Except in the particulars to which I have referred, the whole of my authority remains altogether unimpeached.

But then comes the honourable member for Cork,* who has got into the most laudatory mood ever man was in, and has praised the whole administration of Irish justice in all its branches. He eulogized the twelve judges, the grand juries, the petty juries, the justices, the assistant barristers, in short, all the authorities connected with this portion of the civil government of Ireland. All were alike pure, and wise, and impartial, and just. Praise so wholesale, so unqualified, so indiscriminate, reminded me of a passage related in Mr. Hargrave's life, when he was appointed recorder of Liverpool. That extremely learned person was so pleased with his elevation, and so satisfied with his reception by the good people of the town when he went there to exercise his judicial functions, that he was flung into a fit of praise, like that of my honourable and gallant friend, and on his return he could never cease in his panegyrics. As for the magistrates, "Oh!" he would say, "they were all that could be desired, so kind, so humane, so considerate, so active, too, seeming to delight only in seizing every opportunity of being useful." Then the attorneys who practised before the worshipful bench, they, too, were a most worthy and respectable set of persons, deserving of a better fate, and well fitted to do honour to the wig and the gown. The juries, too—both grand and petty, (as the member for Cork has it,) they were most kind, attentive and intelligent. And as for the suitors, they were so civil, and so candid—so grateful for the smallest portion of justice, that it really was a pleasure to administer it to them. "But the prisoners?" said one who had been listening to this laudatory statement. What of them? "Why, really," said Mr. Hargrave, "for men in their situation, they were as worthy a set of people as I ever met with." Just

occasion when Mr. Martin was tried for murder in a duel; but this has been since questioned.

* Colonel Hutchinson.

so it is now in Cork, we find. The gallant representative of that community vies with the learned recorder of the other place, and exempts from his praise nor judge—nor juror, grand or petty—nor recorder—nor assessor—nor justice—all are sacred to panegyric in Cork and its neighbourhood. To be sure there was one expression that crept into this eulogy, meant to be unqualified, which rather detracted from its value, and in a somewhat material part. “The twelve judges,” says my honourable friend, “are *generally* pure.” In England, we are accustomed to think quite as a matter of course, that all our twelve judges are, without any exception, pure and incorrupt. What notion would a foreigner have of our administration of justice, were he told, and told by one bent upon extravagant praise of it, that the judges of the land are, “generally speaking, pure?” For my own part, I never reported the Irish judges as corrupt; but I did maintain, that from the system established in Ireland, they were more liable to be swayed by prejudices of party, of person, and of sect, than is compatible with the pure and impartial distribution of equal justice. It has always been admitted, that the Court of King’s Bench is pure; but this is really put forward with so much ostentation, it is promulgated with so triumphant a tone, that one might be led to suppose as much could not be said for the other two courts.

In conclusion, let me implore the House to adopt this resolution. Their assenting to it can by no possibility be productive of any mischief, but it will promote conciliation,—it will calm angry feelings,—it will remove discontent,—it will avert danger of which we can neither see the extent nor the consequences. I hear it said that this is not the petition of the Roman Catholics of Ireland, and does not speak their sentiments. There can nothing be more absurd or more wide of the truth than such an assertion. The sentiments of the great body of the catholic people of Ireland are truly stated in the petition. The body from which it proceeds, is looked up to with entire confidence by the whole body of the constituents whom they represent, and for whom they act. The strong language used by persons so entrusted by their fellow-countrymen, may well be excused even if it passes the bounds of moderation, when we recollect how much they all have at heart the object in view. But of one thing be you well assured, that there can no more certain way be found of causing the language of this petition, vehement and even violent as you may think it, to be re-echoed from one end of Ireland to the other, than by alleging that it is indecent, that it comes from parties not entitled to respect, and that it speaks not the sentiments of the Irish people. The one sarcasm which has to-night been resorted to, in allusion to some condemned tragedy* of a supposed party to the composition of this document, will rouse six millions of catholics to rally round their two thousand leaders. I would advise this House not to criticise the petition with too severe a

* Mr. Peel having likened the composition of the petition to “the declamatory style of a condemned tragedy, rather than a grave representation to the legislature,” was supposed to refer to some dramatic efforts of Mr. Shiel, a party concerned in its preparation.

nicety. I would bid them look at the state of Ireland,—such as now to raise fears in those who never feared before,—such that while yet I speak, she may be involved in serious peril. Let the House throw open wide the doors of its grand committee of justice to the prayer of this petition! The effect will be instantaneous; all danger of popular excitement will be averted, or at least suspended, and hope raised in the minds of all, will keep them quietly fixing their eyes upon what the next session may accomplish for their relief. In the name of six millions of your fellow-subjects, whose interests I am maintaining, whose wishes I represent,—in the name of the whole community whose peace is threatened,—in the name of the empire at large, whose security is endangered,—I conjure you not to reject the prayer of this petition, but to obtain present safety for the commonwealth, by telling the Irish people that you will consider their case, and at length do them justice.

SINCE the preceding debate, several very important events have happened, which nearly relate to the subject of it.

I. The first of these is the carrying of the great measure of catholic emancipation by the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel, early in 1829. The firmness and vigour of that proceeding, so truly worthy of the renowned individual by whom chiefly the achievement was won, cannot be too much admired. Nor, in paying this willing tribute, can any person who lays claim to the character of fairness and justice, forget the long efforts and the many sacrifices of Lord Grey, Lord Holland, Lord Lansdowne, and the other Whig leaders, to the same cause. The duke was but a recent convert to the policy which they had throughout their lives maintained, at such heavy cost to all the objects that ambitious men hold most dear—objects sacrificed only by the statesman whose patriotism overleaps all selfish bounds.

Many persons, observing the rise in Roman Catholic demands since the emancipation, and perceiving how little either agitation has ceased, or the discontents of the Irish people and their spiritual leaders have been allayed, deem themselves justified in asserting that the Protestant Establishment has been weakened and put in jeopardy for nothing, and that all the expectations held out of benefits from the catholic relief bill have been frustrated. Nothing can be more true than that less by far has been gained from the measure than all men seemed to hope; but its long delay is in great part to be charged with this disappointment. Moreover, no one ever pretended that the emancipation alone could work the miracle of at once restoring Ireland to peace and contentment, and efface the effects of so many centuries of misgovernment. Other measures were always felt to be necessary for producing the blessed fruits of order and tranquillity. Above all, it was clear that the mere conferring of equal rights upon every class and sect, would not suffice even to satisfy the reasonable desires of the most moderate partisans of the excluded caste. To be eligible only, and never be elected; to be qualified by law, but excluded in practice; to be rendered capable of promotion, but never be made partakers in the honours and emoluments and powers attached to the public service—so far from an improvement in the condition of the catholics, appeared rather a worse lot than that from which the emancipation pretended to redeem them; it seemed as if insult and mockery were added to injustice and oppression. Lord Wellesley, who had nobly signalized his entrance into public life by fighting under Mr. Grattan's standard for the great cause of legislative independence, had, before the emancipation was carried by his illustrious brother, rendered himself still more

dear to the Irish people, during his first viceroyalty, by holding even the balance between conflicting sects, and resolutely giving to the catholics every advantage which the law permitted them to enjoy; and he equally illustrated his second lieutenancy, after their acquisition of equal legal rights, by seeing that the fact and the law corresponded, and by admitting them to a full share in the honours and profits of the state. Lord Anglesey adopted the same wise and statesmanlike course; and Lord Normanby, (we feel a pleasure in restoring to him a name which his talents as a private and literary man had made celebrated,) pursuing the same manly and honest policy, has most justly endeared himself to the Irish people. But this is all too little for the great exigency of the case; other measures of reform in church and in state are still imperiously required to tranquillize Ireland; and as long as the foulest practical abuse that ever existed in any civilized country continues untouched, or touched only with a faltering hand—the Irish church as lavishly endowed for a sixteenth part of the Irish people, as if more than double their whole number could partake of its ministrations—there assuredly never can be peace for that ill-fated land.

II. The late extension of the poor laws to Ireland is a measure of almost equal magnitude with the emancipation itself, and of a truly portentous aspect. It has been strenuously resisted by all parties and all sects in that kingdom. The circumstances of the two countries are so totally different, in some most material respects so entirely opposite, that no argument can be drawn from England to Ireland in behalf of this ill-starred policy. Into the question at large this is no place to enter. Lord Brougham's speeches, in which he continually opposed the bill, and showed how inapplicable its provisions were to the state of the country for which it was framed, proceeded exactly upon the principles unfolded in the two speeches on the English poor law amendment act, contained in this collection. No man, indeed, without being friendly to the worst abuses of our system, which that act was designed to amend, can consistently support the late extension to Ireland of a policy so liable to be abused, and from the abuse of which England is only gradually and at length beginning to recover.

He pointed out when the subject came last before the House of Lords, other measures which the safety of Ireland required. One was the abolition of the lord lieutenancy, without which the Union can never be said to be perfect, and of which all our most eminent statesmen, including Mr. Pitt, Lord Grenville, and Lord Wellesley, were the decided friends. Another, and still more important measure, was the making provision by law for the Romish clergy. This would indeed be by them vehemently opposed, especially at the first and before it was carried. But Lord Brougham expressed a confident belief that, when carried, it would be cheerfully and even thankfully acquiesced in. A story is current upon this subject, and of its truth there is no manner of doubt. One of the catholic prelates being asked by a distinguished minister what the Romish clergy would do were such a measure to be propounded? answered, "All without one exception would oppose it to the uttermost and to the last." But upon a second question being put, "What would they do were it carried?" the answer was as ready. "All without one exception would take the benefit of it and be thankful."

But Lord Brougham held even this to be insufficient. The grand abuse of the Irish Established Church—so incommensurate to the benefits it rendered the state—so grinding to those millions who dissented from its worship—this master evil he regarded as the source of perennial discord, and as a thing of impossible duration. Nay, he foretold that hardly any who heard him were so aged that they might not expect to outlive so enormous an abuse as the gross disparity universally complained of.

III. There has occurred a disclosure upon the course pursued by the Irish government in naming the sheriffs of counties which any one interested in the great subject of the Irish judicial administration, must feel to be most important, and which connects itself closely with the topics discussed in the foregoing speech of 1823. It appears that the executive government habitually interferes with the choice of those important ministers of the law; does not, as in England, consider the lists given in by the judges to be at all binding; displaces without any scruple all the names so selected; and frequently appoints others without any communication

from the bench. This course of making pocket-sheriffs, or sheriffs without any judicial authority for their nomination, is found to have been followed no less than twenty-two or twenty-three times in three years. So grave a matter unavoidably called for the attention of Parliament, and it was ably and temperately submitted by Lord Lyndhurst to the House of Lords, as the especial guardian of the purity of our judicial establishment. A committee was in consequence appointed to investigate the whole of this subject; and a more important inquiry has, perhaps, never been undertaken by either branch of the legislature. It is hardly possible that results favourable to the cause of good government and popular rights should not follow from the committee's labours. Certainly had the things now known been disclosed before the debate in 1823, it would have been wholly impossible to resist the motion then made and rejected. For an habitual interference of the Crown with the appointment of an officer upon whom depends both the execution of all judicial orders and the return of all members to serve in Parliament, must at any rate be put a stop to, in whatever misapprehension of the law such an abuse may have had its origin.

THE GREY FESTIVAL.

INTRODUCTION.

MISSTATEMENTS IN REFERENCE TO THE SPEECH OF LORD DURHAM AT THE GREY FESTIVAL.

THE following speech was delivered at Edinburgh, on the occasion of the great dinner given to Lord Grey by the Scottish reformers. It has been grossly misrepresented; spoken of as against going on with reform; and described as saying, that if little had been done in last session, less would be done in the next.*

The speech is copied from the report published at Edinburgh in October, 1834, and was never seen by Lord Brougham till these volumes were in the press.

Another yet more gross misrepresentation has been made of Lord Durham's allusion to the speech of Lord Brougham. It has been repeatedly asserted that he made a bitter attack upon it. The utter falsehood of this story is best exposed by the following extract of Lord Durham's speech, which includes every single word in which reference is made either to Lord Brougham's speech, or to the conduct of him or of his colleagues.

"My noble and learned friend, the Lord Chancellor, has been pleased to give some sound advice to certain classes of persons, of whom, I confess, I know nothing, except that they are persons whom he considers as evincing too much impatience. I will freely own to you that I am one of those who see with regret every hour which passes over the existence of acknowledged but unreformed abuses. I am, however, and have no doubt that you will agree with me, willing to accept their correction as deliberately as our rulers would wish it; but it must be upon one condition, that every measure must be proposed in strict conformity with the principles for which we have ever contended. I object to the compromise of those principles. I do not object to the deliberation with which reforms are conducted; but I object to the compromise of those principles. I object to the clipping, and the paring, and the mutilating, which must inevitably follow any attempt to conciliate enemies, who are not to be gained, and who will requite your advances by pointing out your inconsistency, your abandonment of your friends and principles, and ascribe the discontent created in our own ranks by these proceedings, to the cause that liberal feelings no longer predominate in the country. Against such a course of proceeding I must ever protest, as pregnant with the worst consequences, as exciting distrust and discontent where enthusiastic devotion is necessary, as creating vain hopes which never can be realized; and above all, as placing weapons in the hands of those who will only use them for our destruction, and the destruction of the great and important interests committed to our charge. With this frank and free exposition of my sentiments, which I have never concealed wherever I

* This must have been a perversion of an observation made at a meeting in Inverness, where probably no experienced reporter attended. What Lord Brougham did say was, that the number of great measures carried in the two last sessions, all of which he enumerated, as emancipation, East India trade, &c. made it unreasonable in men to complain that nothing had been done, and made it quite certain that less must be done next session, because these subjects, the greatest of all, were already disposed of. Lord Brougham well knew what important measures were in preparation; but few indeed of which have since been carried.

have been, and which I never will conceal, I beg to state that I am ready to accept this qualification, to grant the admitted extent in deliberating which my noble friend and the ministers may require, and to place confidence in their declarations of this night, which I am sure will give an earnest of tranquillity to the country, which perhaps it does not possess, and to afford that support which an humble individual like myself can give them."

If anything else was at any time said on the subject by Lord Durham, it must have been at some other meeting which Lord Brougham did not attend. Nothing was ever more absolutely false than to represent Lord Durham as having said anything in the least resembling an attack on Lord Brougham, at the Edinburgh dinner, where alone Lord Brougham was present.

It may be added, that Lord Brougham has ever since pursued the very same course with respect to reform which the following speech recommends. It would be incorrect to say that Lord Durham has materially altered the opinion above given upon the same subject; but assuredly he has very much moderated, and very wisely moderated the tone of his remarks, both as to the question of time and of compromise; nor has he made any protest to reform being laid on the shelf by the government.

S P E E C H

AT

THE GREY FESTIVAL, EDINBURGH,

SEPTEMBER 15, 1834.

MY Lord Rosebery and Gentlemen,—I am sure I shall best express my own feelings, in beginning to address you, by repeating what my noble friend prefaced his speech with, that I do not use a common phrase when I tell you, that I want words to express the feelings with which your kind reception of me has overpowered me at this moment. I know, however,—and that consideration might well stifle within me any feelings of personal pride or arrogance,—that I owe this expression from you, not by any means so much to any personal deserts of my own, as to the accidental circumstance, but to me most honourable, of having the pride and gratification to serve that great and gracious prince who lives in the hearts of his people, and who, for all the services he has rendered to his country, and his honest, straightforward, and undeviating patronage of the best rights and interests of that country, has well earned the unparalleled praise bestowed on him so justly, and without any exaggeration, by your noble chairman, that none of his predecessors ever more richly deserved the affections and gratitude of his subjects. But I also owe your kind reception of me to my noble friend having judiciously coupled my name with those of my most respected colleagues, the rest of his Majesty's ministers, some of whom are here present, and others of whom, though not present, will hear of the manner in which you have been pleased to name them; and I can answer for them, that they will be penetrated with the same gratitude which I now feel, and will be incited by that gratitude to disregard looking behind them, except only to take an example by their colleague, whose irreparable loss they have lately sustained, and to whose great services this most splendid and unparalleled national testimonial has been so appropriately given. But looking forward, in all other respects, I hope that we shall, by the confidence of our countrymen, be animated to exert ourselves in the service of the people, and supported by that confidence, only to be earned by our

own endeavours, and supported by the confidence of our master, shall continue to earn the approbation of the country by deserving it.

Gentlemen, I have not had the satisfaction of appearing before an assemblage of my fellow-citizens in Edinburgh since I had the honour to be clothed with the attributes of office. I have met you before in great numbers, upon an occasion when liberal men were not in elevated situations—when from the head of the state no encouraging smile of royal favour was half so discernible as were the frowns, the perennial frowns, under the mortifying but harmless shade of which we then persevered in our exertions for the people, and flourished notwithstanding. I remind you of this, in order to satisfy those who may look with an eye of envy, perchance, on the present meeting, and may attribute its numbers to the favour in which official men hold the opinions you are all met this day to avow. But I have to remind you of an occasion on which, with no such possibility of misconception, the citizens of Edinburgh flocked together to celebrate, in the shade of opposition, what they are now exulting over the triumph of, in the sunshine of success, and under the patronage of power. Gentlemen, upon that occasion I said, out of office, and at that time with little prospect of ever being in power, what I am now proud to repeat in the same words which I used nine years ago, and which I can say as conscientiously, now that I have been four years minister, as I did then in opposition, “My fellow-citizens of Edinburgh, these hands are clean.” In taking office, and holding it, and retaining it, I have sacrificed no feeling of a public nature—I have deserted no friend—I have forfeited no pledge—I have done no job—I have promoted no unworthy man, to the best of my knowledge—I have stood in the way of no man’s fair pretensions to promotion—I have not abused my patronage—I have not abused the ear of my master—and I have not deserted the people. I am one of those ministers, and my noble friend is another, who have never feared the people. I rejoice, and delight, and glory, in office and out of office, in every opportunity of meeting the people, to render an account to them of my stewardship, and face to face with them, to tell them what I think, even when I happen to think differently from them. For be well assured that that statesman only knows half his duty, and has only half learned what belongs to his place, who would rule men, who would administer the affairs of his fellow-subjects, if he has only learned to fight for the people against the frowns of power, unless he can also, when he thinks the people ill-advised, do good to the people according to his own conscience, and in spite of the people themselves. And such would be my opinion, and such the course of my conduct, if, unfortunately, it ever happened,—and I have never yet seen the day, or the act of the people, which could lead me to believe it could ever happen,—that I and the people should ever seriously differ in opinion.

I entirely agree in all those wise and statesmanlike principles which have been so impressively, so clearly, and so convincingly expounded to you by my noble friend who preceded me. Let the government of the country, strong in the support both of the Crown and the people,

proceed steadily, firmly, and unflinchingly, to discharge their duty, by promoting the progress of liberal opinions; but let them not be hurried out of their course, either to the right or to the left, or onward in their course, faster or farther than sound reflection, calm deliberation, and statesmanlike prudence, entitle them to go. Some men I know, nay, a great number,—I have no doubt, honest conscientious men,—men, generally speaking, of sound opinions, but somewhat unreflecting, who think that execution and action is everything, and that all the time spent in deliberation and in preparation is time thrown away: some of these men blamed my noble friend and my other colleagues, the year before last (1833), and said they had done nothing during the session. One-twentieth part of one of those nothings would have made the fortune of any other administration. I do not mean, because you do not require it, in the presence of my noble friend and colleagues, who would restrain me, if I had such an intention, to enter upon a superfluous panegyric of that extraordinary session, in which the ministers were said to have done nothing for the people; I only mean to show those who think that we are too slow, and do too little, what we did in that unparalleled year. We emancipated the trade of India and China from the fetters of monopoly, and placed on a new, and solid, and liberal footing the government of an empire extending over more than seventy millions of our fellow-subjects. We emancipated the slaves in our colonies, giving freedom to 800,000 human beings; an experiment of a magnitude frightful to contemplate, and which would never have been required, if former rulers had betimes taken steps towards the gradual accomplishment of that mighty change; an experiment on the success, and entire success of which I fully reckon; and all the accounts, with a most trifling exception, which have hitherto reached us, strengthen this expectation, but of which, if it be attended with evil and mischief, instead of being crowned with success, I am ready to take on my head singly, if necessary, the undivided responsibility of making the slave free. I hope his freedom will not be attended with mischief either to others or to himself. But his freedom was no longer a matter of choice to the country. Then there was also a reform of what used to be called a great nest of abuse,—only some people, the moment a nest is cleaned out, think no more of it, nor of those who cleaned it, than if it had never existed at all,—I mean that great court of equity over which I have the honour unworthily to preside: And that I may not weary you by any long remarks, I will just state, that after having effected the most substantial reform in the church establishment of Ireland, to which I need not further allude at present, (and it is no fault of ours that another reform there has not been accomplished,) we closed the session by a measure as great and important as any other that parliament ever adopted, save and except the great measure of parliamentary reform, of which it was the direct and legitimate offspring—I mean the reform in the constitution of the Scottish burghs. All this was said to be nothing, and I have mentioned only five out of ten of those great measures; therefore I am not surprised at hearing people say

that we have done less than nothing this last session, because we could not make the slave more free than we then made him; because we could not make the China trade more open than we then made it; because we could not leave the constitution of the Scottish burghs more open than we left it. A door cannot be more open than when it is flung back to the wall; but all we have done in reform was important as far as it went, and has been continued, by the way, and additions made to it during the last session,—all of which it is convenient for our detractors to overlook. All that we have done this session is nothing fit to be placed in the same line with those other nothings to which I have alluded,—I mean the other little trifling matter of the abolition in England of the poor laws; of which you, happily for yourselves, know nothing at all, but which all connected with England know to be the greatest mischief that a country ever groaned under; a mischief to the proprietor, to the middle classes, and absolute ruin and destruction to the poor.

We shall go on, heedless of the attacks of those hasty spirits. They are men of great honesty, of much zeal, and of no reflection at all. They would travel towards their object, but they are in such a hurry to set out, and to get three minutes earlier than ourselves, that they will not wait to put the linch-pins into the wheel. They would go on a voyage of discovery to unknown regions, but will not tarry to look whether the compass is on board. When they see the port in view, they will not wait for five minutes to go round by the safe channel to it, but dash in amongst the breakers, and run the vessel ashore. They would construct an edifice, and raise a huge and massy pile; but all they look at is the outside, the appearance, the mere shell, and they will not take the trouble to see whether there are any partitions to make it useful and comfortable to live in, nor will they use the plummet and the line to ascertain that it is perpendicular, and keep it from tumbling about their ears. I wholly respect their good intentions—I acquit them of all blame of that description. I make them my most respectful obeisance when getting into their carriage; but I do not think it convenient to accompany them. When going on board their vessel, I choose to abide on the shore; and as to taking any share in their building, I will stand at a respectful distance; for it might make an experiment which I would not wish to see tried, either on their heads or my own—I mean in reference to the relative resistance of the two bodies. In plain terms, these are not safe guides nor just judges; and I fear the critics of the measure are no fair critics of any British ministry; therefore I will go on, and take care to have my vessel in order, and to have my carriage roadworthy, as my ship is seaworthy. I will use the plummet and the square, and build according to rule, and not begin to run up a building which never can be better than a shell, even if it do not tumble about my head; but I will go slowly, safely, and surely to work, till I can build that house substantially.

But if I differ from those persons, not doubting their honesty—if I differ from them, only mistrusting their zeal—I differ a great deal

more from another class who are ten thousand times more dangerous. I only differ from the former as to the pace, the speed I go at; but I differ from the others as to the direction in which I am to proceed; for they will either stand stock-still to be safe; or, to avoid all change, they will go to the south when I go to the north; therefore, with them I have an irreconcilable, nay, a radical difference. These men are the most unsafe guides of all. They are so much afraid of everything like change, that although they would have improvement, it is at such an immeasurable distance, so far off, that neither their eyes, nor their children's, nor their grandchildren's, will ever be able to discover its approach. Reform is on their lips; they pretend they have no objection to certain reforms; but, as it was formerly remarked, they have a verb "reform" of an odd kind—their verb "reform" is an imperfect verb, which has only got the future tense. They say that all things ought to be done gradually and slowly; and to make sure of their being slowly done, they move on in such a way that the nicest eye in the world cannot discover that they have changed their place.

There is one exertion to which these men have no objection, one sort of movement that they do not dislike at any rate, however rapid; they are glad enough to have an opportunity of moving into mischief by retreating backwards. I never heard of anything with greater astonishment than what I heard this evening, partly from my noble friend and partly from those around me; the late language of the most fearful, of the most detestable, of the most incredible description, used by the friends of order, the enemies of anarchy, the haters of change,—by those who cry "revolution" every time that a bill is brought in to correct an acknowledged abuse, or to make the slightest improvement in any part of our institutions—who testify their abhorrence of anarchy, their love of order, and I am afraid I must add, their lust of power and place, which I fear they will never rest satisfied till they have made a blood-thirsty attempt to regain, but which they have lost for ever; I mean the power of misgoverning the king's subjects for their own private ends. I need not add, that all their speculations about the unpopularity of the reformers, about the approaching and already begun reaction which my noble friend explained, about the repentance in which the people are said to have made some progress, a repentance of having supported the reform ministry, and of still clinging by that ministry, are vain and delusive. I can only say, beside the answer to the doctrine of reaction and repentance which this vast assemblage presents here to-day, that I can tell them most conscientiously and most correctly, that I have not seen one single specimen of reaction all over Scotland, and I have traversed it to within forty miles of John O'Groat's House, and in all directions, highland and lowland, agricultural, commercial, and manufacturing. I have not met with one single sample of reaction; and the repentance, if it does exist, hides its head, so that I have not been able to perceive one individual penitent all over the country. Gentlemen, the truth is, that you may guess by the rage of these shortsighted, and I should now say, (from what I have seen this evening,) ill-conditioned and ill-

disposed individuals, and disloyal subjects, their discontent and spite arise entirely from mortified hopes, disappointed ambition—from thirst of place, which they cannot slake at the public fountain—and from finding, that though they may cry out about reaction, repentance, and the unpopularity of reform, if there is any such, at all events they cannot tell where this great unpopularity is to be found; for they cannot pretend that they have anywhere found one single fraction of a fraction of their boasted reaction.

We shall still go on in our course firm, uncompromising, unhesitating, and unflinching. We shall not be hurried on at any other pace than what we deem expedient for the country, and safe for the measures themselves which we are interested in carrying forward. We shall not take to any other counsel on account of any thoughtless clamour proceeding from those impatient quarters to which I have already adverted; but, deliberately devising what we deem just and necessary, safe and expedient measures, we shall defy all opposition from the other and worse class of enemies, those who are against every reform, and who, if they were left to themselves, would renew over the people the reign of terror, and the empire of midnight darkness. Gentlemen, a very pleasing duty falls on me, which I am sure you will assist me to perform,—that is, rendering to the quarter to which it is so justly due the tribute of our affectionate respect,—I mean, in drinking to our worthy chairman. The inevitable and much lamented absence, in consequence of ill health, of my noble friend, the noble duke who was to have filled the chair, suddenly and most unexpectedly, at a quarter of an hour's notice, called on Lord Rosebery to supply his place; and I may appeal to every one who hears me, whether they ever saw the duties of that office more admirably performed, even with the greatest preparation. Gentlemen, I beg to propose the health of our noble chairman.

S P E E C H

ON THE

CHANGE OF MINISTRY IN 1834.

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

FEBRUARY 24, 1835,

ON THE
ADDRESS IN ANSWER TO THE KING'S SPEECH.

INTRODUCTION.

THE subject of the following speech might have been more fresh in every one's recollection, for it is very recent, had not a very strange line of conduct been pursued by certain parties, both in and out of Parliament, with respect to the government which the late king dismissed in November 1834, and the government which he formed in April 1835. In the history of faction there is, perhaps, no second instance of anything so completely unjust to those concerned as that line of conduct.

The extravagant hopes entertained by the friends of reform, from the operation of the act passed in 1832, were sure to be disappointed. Very great improvements had been made in the two succeeding years upon almost all our institutions; but still men were not satisfied; and the complaint was that nothing had been accomplished. The abolition (as it was then believed) of slavery in all our colonies—the opening of the East India trade, and destruction of the Company's monopoly,—the amendment of the criminal laws—vast improvements in the whole municipal jurisprudence, both as regards law and equity—the settlement of the bank charter—the total reform of the Scotch municipal corporations—the entire alteration of the poor laws—an ample commencement made in reforming the Irish church, by the abolition of ten bishoprics—all these measures, carried through in two sessions, were, by some sanguine and impatient spirits, held quite as nothing compared with the vast change which they had expected to be, probably by some magical operation, performed at once and not in succession; for certain it is that if acts of Parliament could only be passed one at a time, there could no more great measures have been carried than the reformed legislature had adopted in two sessions. This unreasonable feeling of disappointment, and the unhappy necessity which existed for the coercion bill in Ireland, had excited a clamour against the government of Lord Grey; and when that justly esteemed and venerated individual quitted office, the king had undoubtedly resolved to take advantage of this clamour, and would have at once changed his ministers, had they given him any opening by hesitating whether or not they should continue to hold the government after Lord Grey's secession. The declaration, first communicated by the chancellor in private to his majesty, and then on the same day made by him in the House of Lords, that the ministers were quite willing to remain, disconcerted all such designs; and the king

could not take the step he so much wished, until Lord Spencer's death, in the following November, gave, or seemed to give, a kind of ground (or rather a hollow pretext) for accomplishing the same purpose. This was the very worst step, as it was the most inconsiderate, and proved, for his own comfort, the most fatal, that this excellent monarch ever took; and he had been beforehand warned distinctly of the inevitable consequences, but had disregarded the warning.

A new feeling, however, was soon produced among the ultra-liberal party by the change. They plainly saw that they had been, by their clamour against the late ministers, playing into the hands of the court and the tories. They were alarmed at what they had done; and joined heartily with the new opposition, that is, the ousted ministry, in measures which soon removed the new government, restoring, with one or two exceptions, the ministry of November 1834. When this ministry was thus re-appointed, those who had, by their impatience and opposition, driven them from the helm, were all at once found to be the most patient, the most reasonable, the most forbearing, the most tractable and considerate of men. The experience of November 1834 had not been thrown away upon them; and all that they had before urged against the do-little, or the do-nothing policy in England, and the coercive policy in Ireland, was now forgotten, or remembered only to draw invidious distinctions between the government of Lord Grey, nay, the government of Lord Melbourne himself, and the new government of 1835.

It required but little sagacity to discern the real meaning of all this. Those parties were conscious of having turned out Lord Melbourne in November; they had repented bitterly of their shortsighted and unreasonable conduct towards him; and were resolved on that amendment of life which is always the best fruit of repentance, the surest proof of its being sincere. But their own honour must be saved; they must needs have a pretence for this total change of conduct as well as of language; they had not the manly candour to say, "We were wrong last year, and we suffered for it—henceforth you will find us reasonable." On the contrary, they affected to believe the gross absurdity, that the Lord Melbourne of November was not the Lord Melbourne of May; and they openly and unblushingly averred, that they supported him in 1835 because he and his new cabinet, composed of the former cabinet with the addition of Lord Grey's eldest son, were incapable of doing such things towards Ireland as he and that same cabinet, and Lord Grey himself, with the hearty support of that son, had done in 1833. Assuredly, neither Lord Melbourne, nor Lord Howick, nor, indeed, any of the other ministers, ever gave countenance to so monstrous an absurdity—so gross and audacious a delusion. But their adherents in all places were most diligent and unremitting in the use of this topic, and it saved the new government for at least one year, if not longer. Until the death of William IV., indeed, this formed the staple of the ministerial defence upon all occasions; not by themselves, but by their adherents both in and out of Parliament. The most invidious distinctions were taken between Lord Grey's government and Lord Melbourne's. "The latter" (said the 'Edinburgh Review') "looks more honest, and is more vigorous." "We have now a ministry incapable of pursuing the atrocious policy of 1833," said all the Irish supporters of Lord Melbourne, who had been loudest in the outcry against Lord Grey. "At length we possess the blessing of a government, for the first time willing to give Ireland justice, and the only viceroy who ever gave catholics their due." Such were the topics on which the government lived out the rest of the late king's reign; disgusting as the food must have been to the palates of those who felt quite conscious of having been Lord Grey's hearty and zealous coadjutors in every one of the measures now most reviled, and his supporters in all the acts of feebleness which the 'Edinburgh Review' discovered, for the first time, when the knell of that noble earl's power tolled. To these topics were added, of course, the most lavish promises on behalf of the government, that sweeping reforms would at length be carried into all the departments of church and of state.

Alas! alas! How are those mighty boasters fallen—those fair hopes blighted! Three years have elapsed, and nothing, absolutely nothing, has been done, except to finish the municipal reform begun by Lord Grey. The adverse court furnished a pretext for two of those three years; but at length the young queen ascended the throne of her ancestors, and threw herself, absolutely and without any kind of re-

serve, even as to naming the humblest attendant upon her royal person, into the hands of her ministers. Did the government, which had been painted as looking so much more honest than Lord Grey's, and being so much more bold in reform, *now* use its power to carry great measures of improvement? On the very contrary, they lost not an hour in casting off all fellowship with reform, and began a course of arbitrary government in some of our colonies, passive acquiescence in the slavery of others, and absolute inaction at home.

But did no one ever assert, in the face of the ministers, that the pretences on which they were supported were false and hollow? This was unquestionably done more than once. In 1836, Lord Grey drew from Lord Melbourne a distinct avowal that he had heartily concurred in all that much venerated minister's policy towards Ireland. In November 1837, Lord Brougham appealed again to Lord Melbourne on the same point, both when Lord Cloncurry had incautiously said something which seemed to betoken an adoption of the false position that Lord Mulgrave was the first viceroy who had done equal justice to the different parties in Ireland—and again upon Lord Roden's motion—stating, in Lord Melbourne's presence, that he whom indiscreet advocates were representing as incapable of proposing such a measure as the coercion bill, had heartily supported it, nay, “was primarily answerable for it,* as the measure proceeded from his own office as secretary for Irish affairs.”† But still more recently, in the last stage of the Irish poor law bill, June 9, 1838, Lord Melbourne admitted most distinctly, that no praise could be too high for the wise, just, and liberal administrations of Lord Wellesley and Lord Anglesey (under both of whom he had himself served as Irish secretary, and over both of whom he had also acted as home secretary), and he only placed Lord Mulgrave's claims to favour, upon the ground of his having continued to pursue the same sound and enlightened course with his predecessors. In this view, so fairly taken at length, by way of public disclaimer of the invidious defence now under discussion, and at all times so necessarily repudiated by the whole of the present ministers, Lord Plunkett, the Irish Chancellor, cordially joined; so that there is an end, and for ever, to the distinction taken between the Grey and the Melbourne cabinet, between the Wellesley and the Anglesey viceroyalty and the Mulgrave, upon the grand questions connected with Irish affairs. Justice had also been rendered to Lord Grey in the Commons by Lord John Russell a few days before. When the appropriation clause was abandoned, upon the practicability of carrying which he and Lord John had differed, the latter admitted that he now found Lord Grey was right, and himself wrong. Men after this, and indeed after many other changes and surrenders lately witnessed, are prone to ask, why Lord Grey, and, indeed, Lord Stanley and Sir J. Graham, are no longer members of the Whig cabinet? The Edinburgh Reviewer may also be now called upon to reconsider his period about “*looking*” and “*being*,” and to admit that Lord Grey's government not only *looked*, but *was* to the very full as honest as Lord Melbourne's, and no one whit less vigorous either in appearance or in reality.

* Mirror of Parliament, Nov. 27, 1837. P. 172.

† These belong to the Home department, which his lordship then held.

S P E E C H

ON THE

ADDRESS OF THANKS TO HIS MAJESTY.

LORD BROUGHAM.—I have risen, my lords, thus immediately after the noble duke,* because I thought that he manifestly misunderstood the sound constitutional proposition of my noble friend,† and the consequences which flow from it,—namely, that for the dismissal of the late government—(for, like the noble duke, I come at once to that measure, and to the dissolution of Parliament, as the grave charges against the present administration)—the noble duke, by accepting office on our dismissal, incurred the whole responsibility. This proposition the noble duke thought that he met, relieving himself from its consequences, by solemnly protesting—and I, for one, my lords, readily and perfectly believe in the sincerity of that protest—that he knew nothing, previously, of the circumstances of the dismissal,—that he never had been consulted about the matter—that he was wholly ignorant of the intentions and motions of the court with regard to it,—and that he had no communication with any such quarter for above two months before the change took place.

The noble duke was then evidently going on to say that he was “astonished” at the event, when he recollected that astonishment would not be quite consistent with the previous expression of his opinion—an opinion by which the whole question was begged, but an opinion, which the noble duke represented himself as having all along entertained, in common with the world at large,—that the elevation of Lord Althorp to the peerage must, at whatever time it occurred, lead to the destruction of the existing administration. The noble duke therefore drew back and qualified his astonishment, and, in effect, only stated that he was no further aware of what was about to take place than every one must have been who had heard of the death of Earl Spencer. But he entirely misunderstood the doctrine of constitutional law, on which my noble friend founded his argument,—that the noble duke was responsible for the dismissal of the late government. My noble friend never asserted that the noble duke was, *de facto*, the adviser of that dismissal. No such thing! But

* Duke of Wellington.

† Viscount Melbourne.

am I, my lords, at this time of day, to teach the noble duke, who has been so long a cabinet minister, and who, for three years and a half, was first lord of the treasury,—notwithstanding his previous declaration, that he should be insane to think of occupying such a post—(but your lordships well know that men very often find themselves in situations to which they never aspired, and discharging duties for which they never could conceive themselves qualified;)—am I, I say, to teach the noble duke, after all his official experience, that for every act of the Crown some minister of the Crown is responsible by law, not only although he never counselled it, but although even he was ignorant of that act in point of fact? The proposition of my noble friend is the simple and constitutional principle, that the King can do no wrong; and, therefore, for what he does, he must have advisers, and consequently responsible advisers. If that be the case with respect to all ordinary acts of the Crown, how much more emphatically must it be the case in reference to an act of such paramount importance as the dismissal of an administration? Well; the noble duke stands in this very position. He is peculiarly, he is emphatically responsible for this change of his Majesty's advisers. For such an act, who, in any case, can be responsible but the persons who come into the places of those who are thus turned out? If the King take the seals with one hand from one person, and with the other give them to another person, I defy any man who has read but the A, B, C, of the constitution, to deny, that he who comes into possession is responsible by law, for the act by which the other has been dispossessed. But he is responsible in fact, as well as in law. The noble duke has attempted to defend his conduct by reasoning; but, my lords, I must take leave, with all respect for him, to declare that more inadequate, not to say flimsy, reasoning I have never heard.

I repeat that the noble duke is responsible in point of fact, as well as in point of law. Without the noble duke's assistance, the act of dismissing the late government could not have been accomplished. If, indeed, instead of being dismissed, the members of the late administration had resigned, or if, asked to return, they had declared that they would not come back to their places, that would have been another matter. But if, instead of resigning, they were dismissed against their will, and were not asked to resume office, then those who took office after them became accessaries after the fact to the dismissal; nay, before the fact, and actual accomplices in the fact itself; for, without their acquiescence, that act of dismissal could not have been perfected. If any man to whom the king tenders an office, from which he has dismissed some other man, refuse to accept that office, the crown is rendered incapable of carrying the dismissal into effect. It is only an inchoate act until the office of the individual dismissed be filled up. The constitution is so cognisant of this principle, that it has been successfully asserted that even when an individual resigns office, if no person can be found disposed to take it, the individual dismissed, and restored, is still to be considered its possessor, and that without any intermission in consequence of his temporary removal. This was

evinced in the well-known case of Mr. Pelham. Mr. Pelham having resigned the seals of his department, one person after another was applied to by the crown, in vain, to become his successor; and he was then re-appointed. The question arose whether Mr. Pelham, although he had given up the seal of Chancellor of the Exchequer, was not, in consequence of that circumstance, still virtually its possessor? It was discussed in the House of Commons; and it was determined that, as the resignation of Mr. Pelham had not been completed by the appointment of a successor, that gentleman was still in possession of the chancellorship of the exchequer; that even his again receiving the seal after he had given it up, could not vacate his seat, nor render necessary a new election, his resignation not having been perfected. My noble friend, therefore, is perfectly right (as I think I have shown) in maintaining that, both in law and in fact, the noble duke is responsible for the dismissal of the late government. There is, in truth, but little substantial difference between the noble duke and myself; for, regardless of his responsibility, he has, with his usual manliness, defended that dismissal. He has admitted in substance what he may have appeared to deny in terms, and has taken on himself the responsibility in question.

Your lordships have it now on the noble duke's own authority, by public and solemn avowal, that he was the chief party in the whole transaction. You have his own positive, distinct, and articulate avowal; and he has assigned the only reason, as he furnished the only means, for changing the late administration. I see, too, that in the speech from the throne, which we have heard this day, all other reasons for the dismissal are excluded for ever, because the grounds for the defence of the late ministry are laid down in every line—in the speech, which is known and felt to be, as it constitutionally should be, the sole production of his majesty's responsible advisers. In that document I see, throughout, one prevailing strain; it may have been extorted by the mighty force of truth—it may have been torn forth by the irresistible necessity of the case; but still, one strain of justification, if not of actual panegyric, on all the measures of their predecessors in office, pervades the whole composition. All abroad is tranquil—all abroad is at peace—except in one only spot of earth; this we learn from one passage. All our alliances have been strengthened and improved; of this we are informed by another passage. Therefore, except in one case, has there been accomplished that most difficult of all tasks, as it was when we came in proclaimed to be, the maintenance of peace abroad; and that, not for a period of four months, which we were then told would be next to a miracle, but of four years. When I see that this great object has been achieved everywhere—with the single exception of a little corner of Spain—I am sure that every man must feel that no grounds can have existed for the dismissal of the late government on account of their foreign policy. I think I could tell what kind, liberal hand it was that penned those eulogistic passages—the hand of one who was once in all respects liberal, and who would still, it should seem, retain his kindly and liberal feelings towards all his enemies. When I re-

member, my lords, what fell from the present right honourable president of the board of trade,—formerly my esteemed friend, now my respected adversary,—what fell from him, not in those days when that right honourable gentleman discussed the corn bill in the other House of Parliament, night after night, with patriotic pertinacity, in exact conformity with the opinions which the mob out of doors held with an obstinacy as pertinacious, if not as patriotic, endangering, out of doors, the life and property of my noble friend* whom the right honourable gentleman only argued and declaimed against within the walls of Parliament—but at a later period, when the right honourable gentleman, at the commencement of our administration, declared that, unless by the intervention of a miracle, the tranquillity of Europe could not be maintained for four months; and, when I remember that it has been preserved by that very administration for four years and a half, I cannot doubt that the eulogy on this subject, which his Majesty's speech contains, proceeded from that just and liberal quarter, wrung from the president of the board of trade by the disappointment of his own prophecy. I cannot but suppose that the right honourable gentleman, not in a truant fancy for panegyriizing the bygone administration, but from the strong pressure of truth upon his mind, has made it a point to have those passages inserted, wherein he records our success, and congratulates the country upon the performance of an infinitely greater miracle even than that to which he had looked forward.

This speech, too, felicitates the country upon the happy results which have attended the emancipation of the Negroes, upon the settlement of a question in which not only the prosperity, but the very existence, of our colonies was involved. I had wished, I had longed, I had prayed, for this result; but I confess, now that it has arrived, the description of it, in the speech, surpasses my most sanguine expectations. It comes fully up to my anxious wishes and desires, to find that not only there should have been no mischief, but that there should have been a vast amount of good easily and safely effected by it. Much of this is, undoubtedly, to be attributed to the spirit and capacity of my noble friend,—whom I ought to have thanked sooner,—the late governor of Jamaica; much, also, to the admirable arrangements and great talents of the distinguished individual who lately filled the office of secretary of the colonies; but of these praises, certainly, the cabinet to which my noble friend* belonged must have its share, for having considered and digested a measure which had been wrought out with a degree of success that is all but unexampled—crowning our hopes, and surpassing our expectations.

There is another topic touched upon in the speech, to which I may also naturally be expected to advert. On the subject of the report on the municipal corporations I will say nothing in detail, as it is not now before your lordships; but I rejoice to hear that commission spoken of no longer in the terms in which the act of advising the issuing of it was formerly described. The ministry under whose counsils that

* Lord Western.

* Lord Stanley.

commission was issued, are no longer to be represented as spoliators of public and private property. Not much, indeed, is said upon the subject; but, at all events, the commission is not characterized as one involving a violation of chartered rights, and an unheard-of and unexampled pillage of all property. I thank God that I have lived to see the day when it is acknowledged, not only with the assent, but amidst the unanimous plaudits of the ministers of the Crown,—that the law upon the subject, as I had laid it down, is the law of the land—that there is no illegality in the commission which has been issued,—and that I am not liable to impeachment for having advised that great measure. It is true that, from such corporations as Leicester and Norwich, and other haunts of corruption, appeals were made for the preservation of those ancient bodies, as the very pillars of the monarchy, and the especial blessings of the constitution. But all those appeals,—all the denunciations on the subject by learned counsel and more learned recorders, seem to have “vanished into thin air,” before the lights which the cabinet has lately received. Whether their present path had been rendered clear to them before the late dissolution, or was lighted up by the results of the election, or made obvious by what has since occurred—among other things, by the event of the discussion as to who should be the occupant of the speaker’s chair,—(that brilliant proof of the successful exertions of his Majesty’s present government,—that sweet foretaste of the triumph which the enemies were to enjoy over the friends of reform)—at what time this light first broke in upon his Majesty’s government, I neither understood, nor can I now stop to inquire. It is sufficiently gratifying to find that the present government approve of that which may be deemed the most important measure, and must be admitted to have at least one of the most important measures, of the late administration. I am also entitled to felicitate my noble friends and myself upon the testimony which the speech from the Throne bears to the success wherewith our domestic, as well as our foreign and colonial affairs, have been administered during the last four years; nor is there the least exception made against the late advisers of the Crown in reference to the commercial concerns of this great country. The revenues are flourishing,—trade is most prosperous,—congratulations are delivered upon our happy internal state,—and the clearest evidences are afforded of the general prosperity of the country, without a particle of blame being attached to—without the least imaginable imputation being cast on—the policy of the late government; in both these particulars,—nay, even as tried by the severest test of all, our success,—we are abundantly acquitted.

Such being the character of the speech from the Throne, such the description of our foreign, domestic, and colonial situation, of our trade and our finances, it is not for a single moment pretended that the dismissal of the late administration arose from any incapacity on their own parts;—it was for no want of capacity in forming their measures, or of vigour in executing them,—it was not from any want of success attending them,—it was not from any failure of any description, that,

on the 14th of last November, the late administration was dissolved. Then, my lords, how has the noble duke opposite endeavoured to account for that dissolution? He tells you that a noble lord, now a member of this House, had, previously to the month of November, enjoyed, in an eminent degree, the confidence of the late House of Commons. Now, this is an argument which, for my part, I wish to put even more strongly for the noble duke than he himself has put it. The argument amounts to this—that Lord Althorp possessed, to an unprecedented degree, the confidence of the House of Commons; and it is most undoubtedly true, that there never was bestowed upon any minister more of the love, the respect, the confidence of the representatives of the people, than was given to the late Chancellor of the Exchequer. The prodigious oratory of Pitt,—the unrivalled eloquence and gigantic powers of every kind possessed by Fox,—the court favour of Addington,—the long experience of Sir Robert Walpole, and the many high qualities which secured to that minister such power in the House of Commons,—failed to realize for any one of those distinguished men anything like the pre-eminence, in the partiality of the House of Commons, to which Lord Althorp had attained. My lords, in classing sir Robert Walpole with those whom I have named before him, I am not giving that minister more than his deserts: true, he occasionally spoke lightly of matters which, in a purer age,—an age of improved political virtue—are looked upon seriously; he has, therefore, laid himself open to the animadversion of those who are not, perhaps, more honest, though they be more decorous; but he was a great minister, and worthy to be named with the greatest; yet not even he, with all his great services to the Crown, which he saved for the House of Brunswick,—with all the favour he obtained and deserved from the country,—not even he (and not one of his successors, whom I have now ventured to name) ever attained a larger share of the confidence of the House of Commons, than that which was enjoyed by Lord Althorp. If I did not fear that my saying so might be imputed to the influence of private friendship, I would even assert that Lord Althorp personally enjoyed more of the confidence of the House of Commons than any of his predecessors. My lords, I know that in saying this, I am putting the argument very strongly for the noble duke—as I said I should—and now, what does it amount to? The noble duke affirms that, without him, the late ministry could not go on. By what tenure did they hold their offices? Did they hold them *pour autre vie*? Had they no estate in them, but for the life of another, and that other having no connection with them? According to the noble duke, it was not an estate for the life of the King, nor the life of the Parliament—they did not hold their places during good behaviour, nor during pleasure, nor as long as they were efficient, nor upon condition of their measures being attended with success—not *quamdiu vixerint* or *quamdiu se bene gesserint*—no such thing; it was *quamdiu J. S. vixerit*—they held them, simply, during the natural life of the late Lord Spencer, and no longer—that noble earl being in the seventy-eighth year of his age. The position contended for on the other side is this, that the moment

Lord Spencer ceased to exist, that moment the administration must cease to exist likewise. The conclusion arrived at is, that because the Commons had so much confidence in the present Earl Spencer, then Lord Althorp, therefore they would have no confidence in anybody else, on his retirement—not merely that they trusted him, but that they could trust nobody but him. Upon whose authority does that statement rest? The House must have been surprised to learn that this assertion has been made upon the single authority of Lord Grey; I regret to name him—I regret that his not having yet taken the oaths and his seat permit his being named in this House. I know of no event which I ever more regretted than the resignation of Earl Grey; it was an event which filled me with sincere sorrow when it took place, after the earnest endeavours of Lord Althorp and myself to prevent it. Yet, my lords, am I delighted to find that one good has resulted from it—(the only good which I feel it possible to conceive, under any circumstances, it could be productive of)—it has caused the noble duke, of a sudden, to become partial to my noble friend's policy. Your lordships cannot fail to have observed, that all at once the noble earl has become a great and paramount authority on the other side of the House. He has been spoken of by the noble duke as "the noble earl who had so worthily filled the office of Prime Minister," the noble duke forgetting how often that noble earl had been charged with nothing less than a scheme of revolution and ruin—how often he had been threatened with impeachment—of what exaggerated accusations he had been made the subject—with what invectives he had been assailed out of doors, and how he had been systematically, and without measure, vituperated for each act of his official life within the walls of this House. What, my lords? Have we not heard that noble earl denounced as the author of a revolutionary bill—as responsible for the revolutionary dissolution of Parliament—as having sown, broad cast, the seeds of revolution—as having aimed, by means of popular excitement, at the destruction of all legitimate government, the ruin of the House of Lords, and the demolition of the monarchy? Yet now, my noble friend is no longer a rank innovator—no longer a revolutionary schemer; he has become, in a moment, an authority of the highest order, and from which there can be no appeal! All those topics of vituperation—all those causes of animosity—are laid at rest—*pulveris exigui jactu*, as if the event of his removal from the world (far distant, I hope and trust) had already happened. All faults are now buried in oblivion, and my noble friend's authority is held to be paramount, and, according to the noble duke, must decide the question; the argument standing thus—because Lord Grey said that Lord Althorp was the right hand of the administration, it was therefore instantly concluded that the government without him could no longer be carried on. It seems to have been held by the noble duke that I and my colleagues were guilty of great presumption in attempting to carry on the government a moment after Lord Grey had pronounced it to be impossible, which, by the way, he never did. Your lordships must recollect, that the authority of Lord Grey was quoted on behalf of this most remark-

able argument. The noble duke, resting on Lord Grey's *dictum*, says:—

"I was right in taking the responsibility of changing the government, and in advising the Crown to make me and my right honourable friend succeed the late administration, because I had Lord Grey's opinion distinctly declared that they could not go on."

How strongly does such a mode of discussion remind me of the way in which texts of Scripture are quoted and twisted to serve the temporary purpose of an argument! Now, if the authority of the noble lord is good for anything, it is equally good throughout—if wise, he could not be wise on one question only, and of no value upon all the others. If the noble duke may quote him, so may I. The noble duke is vastly ready to quote my noble friend when his words help him to turn us out and take our places. When my noble friend's name serves the purpose of the other side, they deify it; but if his name be made to serve the purposes of one side of the House, why not those of the other? I shall most unhesitatingly use the authority of my noble friend also. I shall quote Lord Grey's authority to your lordships repeatedly this session. I, for one, shall not allow that there is a "single exception" (to cite the words of the speech) "to the general tranquillity" which prevails, and to the alliance which has been cemented between the argument of the noble duke and the authority of Earl Grey—

[The noble and learned lord was reminded by the Duke of Wellington of something he had omitted.]

LORD BROUGHAM.—I will speak to that; let not the noble duke be alarmed. The noble duke may be alarmed at many things—he may be alarmed at the state of the House of Commons—at the vote, for example, to which it came the other night—

THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.—Not at all. It was not of that moment which has been attributed to it.

LORD BROUGHAM.—Ay, I dare say that the noble duke rather liked it; and if the address be rejected by a larger majority than voted on that occasion, he will, of course, like it much better. If a majority of ten was a pleasant thing, a majority against him of forty must be four times as good. But let not the noble duke be alarmed at my passing over for the present the part of the argument to which allusion has been made.—I shall, with your lordships' permission, come to it, but I must take my own time. To resume, however, the course of my observations—I was about to quote Lord Grey when I was interrupted. The noble duke will only use Lord Grey's authority when it will operate to justify the turning out of the late ministry and the coming into office of the present ministry. Now, Lord Grey is everything with the noble duke and his supporters—he is their glory, their *decus et tutamen*; but the moment I shall remind the noble duke of another expression of Lord Grey's, I have no doubt he will break the image of his god, and cast it from him.

It is fit, then, that I remind the House of what the noble earl said

in the presence of 2800 persons who heard his declaration, and by whom it was echoed with vehement applause. At that time he it remembered that Earl Spencer was three months older than on the occasion when Earl Grey spoke of Lord Althorp as the right hand of the administration. I should not have ventured alone to quote this authority, had not the noble duke already made it his oracle. The partiality of friendship might be thought to lead me too far. But the noble duke has set me the example; he has bottomed his justification of all that has taken place on the authority and words of Lord Grey; and I, myself, am therefore justified in using the language of the same eminent individual. No, he spoke to this effect in the month of September last year:—"These tories, who are now ashamed of their name, who choose to shelter themselves under the new title of conservatives"—I think, my lords, that these, or something like these, were my noble friend's expressions. I hope that the noble lords opposite are not ashamed of their new name,—I see nothing wrong in it. I believe that they will continue to be conservatives, notwithstanding their present reforming mood; and that, when they come to particulars, they will be found as much anti-reformers as ever. "These tories," said Lord Grey, "do they fancy that they can take the government of the country in their hands?—let them only try it." I plainly perceive from the movement of the noble lords opposite, that they are ready to argue that this phrase of Lord Grey's was an advice given to them that they should take the government. If they were to advance that as a reason for the course which they have pursued, I must admit that it would be a much better reason—a much more logical one than that adduced by the noble duke; at least, it would be quite of a piece with the argument by which it is attempted to make my noble friend near me* responsible for the change of the government, because he allowed his servant to bring a letter to town in which there was enclosed another letter to the noble duke, unknown to my noble friend.

[Cries of "No!" "No!" from the ministerial side.]

LORD BROUGHAM.—But I say "Yes." That was the statement given by my noble friend,—that Sir Herbert Taylor asked him, when he was leaving Brighton, if he would allow his servant to take a letter to Sir Henry Wheatley? To which my noble friend answered, that he could have no objection; and that circumstance, it appears, is to make my noble friend liable for what was contained in the letter, of which he could know nothing; and this is given as a proof that my noble friend could not go on with the government, and was anxious that the noble duke should turn him out. The expression of Lord Grey's which I was just quoting is, however, as good authority as that adduced by the noble duke; and what were his words? "They take the government!"—alluding to the tories or conservatives; "let them try it, and they will see what the country will do—what the

* Viscount Melbourne.

House of Commons will do;" and then Lord Grey proceeded to give his reasons for considering such an event—an event in his views so calamitous—as absolutely, hopelessly, and ridiculously impossible.

My lords, I trust that after what I have said respecting my noble friend's services in the House of Commons, of the rank which he held in the confidence of his fellow-members (all of which Lord Grey by no means overrated when he spoke of his refinement), and after stating, what I ought to have added before, that if it were possible for him to have had a more cordial support out of doors than he enjoyed within the walls of Parliament, that support Lord Althorp did possess,—that he was the idol of his countrymen, as he was the approved and confidential servant of the Crown in the House of Commons;—I trust that no man will accuse me, no man will suspect me, of underrating the importance of the loss which the late government sustained in the noble lord's removal hither on occasion of Lord Spencer's unfortunate, but in nowise unexpected decease. We had looked early to that event—repeatedly we had our attention called to it—long before the public were aware of Lord Spencer's serious illness, we had canvassed it, and regarded it in all points of view; we had contemplated all its probable results, and no one can doubt that as men of prudence—of ordinary prudence—in regard to the management of our own concerns, his Majesty's late ministers must have felt, as they did feel, most deeply the loss of Lord Althorp—not a total loss, such as the noble duke seems to think, and which alone would have made the present case similar to that adverted to by Lord Grey, but simply the loss of his services in the House of Commons, occasioned by his being removed from that House, and transferred to this. But had it been the loss of Lord Althorp to the cabinet altogether, I am prepared to state, that even great as it would have been to us, individually, as his colleagues, and also to the King's service and the country, we were ready to meet the exigency of the occasion which must from thence have arisen; and we were prepared, without his great assistance, to have carried on his Majesty's government. On this subject there was no hesitation,—on this point there was no doubt,—on this resolution there was no difference of opinion,—and still worse (for it is still falser—"if falser thing than false can be"), they who have represented, who have dared to represent, in the face of the fact, which all concerned intimately and thoroughly know, that my noble friend ever expressed to his Majesty a shadow of a doubt of being able to go on with the government, if his Majesty chose to continue him in it; those persons, I say, if they have been deceived, have been grossly deceived,—if they have fancied what they have asserted, they have imaginations approaching to unsoundness of mind,—if they have invented it, then, I know no language in which, in the presence of your lordships, I could venture to express my opinion of their bad faith. My belief is, that those inventions, be they fictions of the brain, or be they the fabrications of falsehood, or be they the errors arising in the ordinary progress of a tale, in which, from the little additions that each tale-bearer makes, being himself

the bearer of a part and the inventor of the residue, the responsibility is so divided that it is difficult to say where the fabrication takes place; whatever be their source, my belief is, that they all arose in London; and that not a shadow, not a vestige, not a colour of a pretext for the fable has been ever afforded from any quarter out of the city in which I am now addressing your lordships. What, then, becomes of the argument, that the King was obliged to break up the late government, because those who advised him so to do, always thought that if Lord Althorp went from the House of Commons, that government could not go on; and because they chose to say, "though it did continue to go on, that it ought not to have done so;" and that Lord Grey had predicted it could not do so, under totally different circumstances, and alluding to a perfectly different event, the loss of Lord Althorp to the cabinet.

The noble duke asks, however, "were not other persons as well as Lord Grey to judge of the effects of Lord Althorp's removal—was the King himself not to judge?" I am perfectly ready to meet the noble duke on the point involved in that observation; it is, indeed, my lords, one essential to the present question—I mean the nature of the Crown's prerogative of choosing and changing its servants. It is the undoubted, the unquestioned, power of the Crown to do so: that I set out with; but let us examine what is the meaning of this proposition, in order to apply it, and let us see how that prerogative is founded, in order to perceive how it is limited. In every state, the public service must be provided for, and officers must be appointed by some one. Our constitution—that of a limited and hereditary monarchy—will not allow the principle, generally speaking, of election, either as regards the highest office of all, or as regards the inferior offices of the ministry; descent provides for the one, selection for the other; and, accordingly, in some one power of the state, the nomination to those offices must be vested. In whom is it vested? In the King. But it is a power exercised for the good of the people; it is not to be dealt with capriciously—it is not to be used as an amusement—it is not to be played with—not to be employed as a man would the power which he has of sending off one servant without notice, to gratify his own whims, and choosing another. A man might exercise this power of arbitrary dismissal if he pleased, and he would be the worse served; he would be the loser; but he alone would be the injured party; his interest alone would suffer. But the King holds the power in question, not for his own gratification—not at all for his own purposes. It is not he that is to be injured or to be benefited by the exercise of it. He is not a party to the risk—he is not a party to the gain or to the loss attendant on the exercise of the power—he is a trustee—he is himself a public servant—he is appointed and empowered for the benefit of his people. The trust which he exercised is wholly for their sake. It is not because some one should say, "turn out this person and get another," that his power is therefore to be put in operation. He is not to place and displace his servants, because somebody may say—"lord this is better than lord that," or because somebody else may

cry—"Oh! do turn out these men, and just let us have the duke again." That is not the theory of the constitution—that is not the condition on which the power exists—that is not the tenure by which the power is holden. So long as this power is exercised as it ought to be, it will be safely holden; and no one would think of questioning its foundation, or objecting to its existence, or of wishing to restrict it; but it must be exercised soundly, publicly, and on stateable grounds. No sovereign of this country has a right by the constitution—(and your lordships will be pleased to observe, that in speaking of the sovereign, I speak, of course, only of his advisers, using his name merely to avoid circumlocution; and in reference to the present occasion, be it always remembered that those who succeeded my noble friend were, in point of fact, and of constitutional law, the advisers of the crown, as I have already shown;—the sovereign, I say, has no right—by the constitution it is illegal—it is prohibited to the crown—it is a wrong, an unlawful, a criminal act—to exercise that high function of dismissing its ministers and choosing others, unless on grounds capable of being stated and defended. Now, my lords, I ask, in what way has this prerogative been exercised on the present occasion? First, it has been exercised while Parliament was not sitting. In what manner has the prerogative been similarly exercised on former occasions? Since the revolution there have occurred, I believe, but two instances of the ministry being changed while Parliament was not sitting: both were in the reign of King George III. One of them, in the year 1765, was a dismissal of ministers after the prorogation of Parliament, in consequence of a quarrel with Mr. George Grenville respecting the regency bill. The other case of dismissal was that of the first Rockingham administration, in 1766; which having been formed while Parliament was prorogued, was dissolved likewise in vacation; and in both of those instances there was much of that kingcraft which George III began early, and practised late. These cases were not similar to the present; in each of them there was a distinct difference between the king and his servants; a difference irreconcilable—not one of a merely personal nature, but one of principle; and there was also this circumstance, in the latter instance—that it was then thought desirable to secure to the crown and the country the services of the great William Pitt, Earl of Chatham. It may be true, that there are those who think that celebrated man may be paralleled in the present day, and that some such motive existed now; though, for my part, I know not who their Chatham can be. Be that, however, as it may, Lord Chatham took an earldom, and left the House of Commons, which no one ever did voluntarily, without bitterly rueing the step, when he found the price paid to be the loss of all real power. Accordingly, the great prime minister was soon turned out; the king was advised to take advantage of his want of weight; his well-known administration, which Burke has described as "a piece of tessellated pavement, with here a bit of black, and there a patch of white," was soon broken up. I hold, my lords, that if it ever becomes necessary to dismiss a ministry in vacation—and I would not go the

length of saying that such an occasion may not arise—Parliament ought to be assembled immediately.

I will now defy my opponents to give—unless in the times of the Tudors or of the Stuarts—a single instance where there has been any great ministerial change, otherwise than on assignable, constitutional, and public grounds. If ministers resigned, that was a sufficient cause. If they were torn among themselves by endless dissensions—if they differed from the sovereign,—if they differed from the country at large,—if their measures were evidently ruinous,—if dishonour abroad and disaster at home marked the whole tenor of your government,—any of these might have been constitutional grounds of dismissal;—and, above all, if there happened to be a general feeling of distrust and disapprobation throughout the country; that would form a sufficient ground for such a procedure. But I confidently ask your lordships whether any one of these reasons, or any particle of any one of them, applies, in the slightest possible degree, to the present case? The King's speech answers the question decisively, so far as regards any difference between the late ministry and the country, and so far as regards the merits and the success of measures, ecclesiastical or civil, and whether connected with the administration of affairs at home or abroad. As to any difference among the members of that ministry, I will say, my lords, that, from the change which took place when the administration of the noble viscount was first formed, till it went out, there never was the shadow of the shade of a difference of opinion among them, even as to matters of detail. There was no one point of disagreement in regard to any line of policy—no one instance of hesitation in any one person respecting the opinion formed by another. Difference with the sovereign there was none; no question had arisen which could occasion any such disagreement.

Thus, then, not any one of the reasons which I have enumerated existed for changing the late ministry. I have stated that George III was a sovereign well practised in making and changing administrations; and that measure of experience which had been so little in 1766, and which, being so limited, led him in those days to commit some errors, forty years afterwards (that is, in 1806), combined with the lesson of the American war, and its necessary consequences—induced him to adopt a prudent and successful course, being then advised by the friends of the present cabinet, by a noble and learned lord* now in this house, by the late Lord Liverpool, the late Lord Londonderry, then Lord Castlereagh, by Mr. Perceval, Mr. Canning,—all of whom succeeded the administration which was then turned out. What took place on that memorable occasion, puts the stamp of authority on all I have stated, and vindicates the opinion I have expressed of the limits within which the king's prerogative should be exercised of dismissing his ministers. Observe the course pursued by George III. The ministry was not dismissed without tangible and producible reasons; and it was dismissed during the sitting of Parliament. There never was a

* Lord Eldon.

greater desire entertained, either at court, or by a party—the conservative party, then called tories—to get rid of a government, than there was to get rid of the government of the whigs, after the death of Mr. Fox,—and all the parties well knew, no doubt, the importance of that extraordinary man to his administration. But how differently were things done then, by wiser men, and in better times! The whig administration had no favour at court; the king's favour they had certainly not enjoyed since the coalition in 1784, nor had they, I presume, the favour of the tory courtiers. Well, Mr. Fox died on the 13th of September, 1806, there being ample notice of his approaching end for two months before, in consequence of the operation he was obliged to undergo. There was no hurry,—neither public nor secret advisers, nor illustrious dukes were taken by surprise. Did his majesty then, on the 14th of September, on the death of Mr. Fox, act as his present majesty on the 14th of November last was advised to do on the death of Earl Spencer? Did those great statesmen who counselled George III—experienced, sage, eminent, and discreet men as they were,—so well versed in the theory and practice of the constitution, so skilled withal in the arts of cabinet-making,—ever think of advising him, because Mr. Fox was dead, instantly to turn out the whig administration? No such thing; no such advice was given: the ministers were allowed to remain in office till the end of March following; not from any want of inclination to turn them out—on the contrary, there was every inclination steadily, unremittingly, uninterruptedly manifested, to employ any opportunity that could be taken advantage of for dismissing them; but they were allowed to remain in office six months longer, because the constitution would not allow them to be turned out without some assignable cause. Nay, the king even allowed them to dissolve the Parliament after the death of Mr. Fox, although he very plainly must have foreseen that a second dissolution would thus be soon rendered necessary; and he only removed them in March, when the catholic question occurred to create a disagreement. Such, however, is not the course which his present majesty has been advised to pursue. It is thought that an opportunity offered, through the loss of Lord Althorp, for turning the late government out, although no charge whatever had been urged against them,—although no difference of opinion upon any question existed among themselves—no disagreement with their royal master—and although they were still prepared satisfactorily to go on conducting the government of the country.

I now, my lords, approach another part of the proceedings; the dissolution of Parliament which followed. And here I cannot but crave your attention to the gross, glaring, and almost incredible inconsistency of the argument of the noble duke; I do protest, that if I had not heard it with my own ears, I could not have believed that such an argument would be hazarded. “The ministers” (says the noble duke) “were turned out because Lord Althorp was taken from the House of Commons.” That was his argument. After Lord Althorp, who so deservedly and so eminently possessed the confidence of the Com-

mons, left the lower House of Parliament, what reason, argues the noble duke, had the noble lord* to believe that the House of Commons would continue their confidence under another leader? "Therefore," he says, "the late ministry was dissolved." Crippled as they were by the loss of Lord Althorp, the Commons could no longer confide in them. That is the noble duke's reason. But then, unfortunately, the next thing he did was to dissolve the House of Commons too. "I turn out the ministers," says the noble duke, "because the loss of Lord Althorp will prevent the House of Commons from following the ministry enough; and then I turn out that same House of Commons itself, because it would follow them too much, though they have lost Lord Althorp." There is, in truth, but one reason for turning out that House of Commons. You may disguise it as you will—you may wrap it up in boisterous expressions—you may cover it over with flimsy pretexts—you may turn periods upon it in the speech and in the address, and then follow them up, in debate, with a cloud of similar periods, endeavouring, as it were with smoke, to veil it from our eyes: but we pierce through the cloud—we blow it away—we know that there could be but one reason for turning out the late House of Commons. And what was that? That it did not confide sufficiently in the late ministers? That the late ministers had lost the confidence of the House of Commons, having lost Lord Althorp? Oh, no, no! But the late ministers still had the confidence of the House of Commons, though they had lost the inestimable services of Lord Althorp; and that House the new ministers would not allow to remain, because they knew what its first vote would be,—not that it could not follow the late ministers, but that, though it regretted the loss of Lord Althorp, it would still confide and trust in them. My lords, men ought to be consistent in their pretences—if I am forced so to term their arguments. The *ratio suavioria* and the *ratio justificata* are not always the same: the one is often found to be utterly irreconcilable with the other. But when men put forward a justifying argument, they should take care, at least, that it is not grossly irreconcilable with their conduct; for this discrepancy is like a rent through which the real reason is descried. The noble duke and those who support him might have argued that the loss of Lord Althorp to the House of Commons caused the change of ministry, because the Commons would no longer support the government; they might have rested on that ground; but when the noble duke follows up that change by dissolving the House of Commons, there is an end at once of the whole reason; it merely occupies the place of a pretext, and cannot for one moment deceive any man of sound and sober logical understanding.

I now come, my lords, in the natural course of the argument, to the ministers who have succeeded the late government, and to the grounds on which the noble duke expects the confidence of the country. He says that the course which he has pursued, of dissolving Parliament, is to be justified by the event, and he has expressed a hope of still

* Viscount Melbourne.

enjoying the support of the new House of Commons. He looks upon my noble friend* as very unreasonable, for calling on him to take the experience of this the first night of the session, as a test of success. The test has been, however, applied, and I will venture to say, in the most remarkable manner ever recorded. I have never heard of any one instance since the revolution of 1688, in which the minister was defeated on the first day of the new Parliament to which he had appealed, after "recurring," as the King's speech expresses it, "to the sense of the people." I suppose that the sense of the people is to be obtained by the votes of their representatives assembled in Parliament; and the sense of the people has been now in this way shown, by leaving the present ministers in a minority, on the very day of the return of the writs, upon the question who should be speaker? But there is a strong ground, it seems, why the present ministers should enjoy the confidence of the people. They are, all of a sudden, now become—though ex-tories and conservatives formerly—reformers; and we are told that if we are consistent, we ought to second the address; that if we really wish for reform, and for good measures, we ought to give countenance and support to the present government, for they are as good reformers as ourselves. Since when? Is it, my lords, since the *testé* of the writs, or since the result of the elections; or has it been, peradventure, since the vote with Mr. Ley in the chair, when they saw the minority in which they stood? When, I ask, did the reforming spirit come upon this government? They are now for reform in corporations—in the law—in the church—in the state—in tithes—and in the law of marriages. They are going to make marriage a civil contract, and to abolish all banns, for the sake of the dissenters. All these things we are to have from those who, a few months ago, would not listen to any reform,—who told us that, in proposing it, we were pulling down the church about our ears,—who inveighed against us as revolutionists— who challenged us as rebels,— who exclaimed that we had either fools' heads on our shoulders or traitors' hearts in our bosoms. Since when, I repeat, has this miraculous conversion taken place?—whence has it been derived? My lords, I hope that my experience of men has not made me too distrustful of their good intentions, or induced me to entertain a worse opinion of the honesty of my fellow-creatures than I ought to cherish. I hope that, having lived so long in the world as I unfortunately have, I have not therefore arrived at an unkindly or uncharitable estimate of their honesty. It is, however, a result not more perhaps of reason and experience, than of a sort of instinct which I have in me—an instinct which I believe to be a property of our common nature—that I feel an invincible mistrust of sudden, unaccountable, miraculous conversions. That men should at once—from being the enemies of reform—from being the opposers of all improvements—from being the vituperators of all change—from being those who confounded reform with revolution, anarchy, disaffection,—with political insanity, if not the

* Viscount Melbourne.

worst political depravity—who would not touch any one of the out-works of our venerable institutions of church or state—who signalized their opinions, year after year, by uninterrupted, unabated, and pertinacious hostility to all species of reform—regarding it as synonymous with destruction—whose conduct has recorded their opinions in the eyes of the world, and whose speeches have rung it in all our ears—whose protests have stigmatised reform in worse language than I have to use—for I cannot forget the invectives against it with which they have so often loaded your lordships' journals—that these men should all at once, on the 14th of November, in the year of Grace, 1834, without any intermediate event happening—any change of public affairs—with nothing but twenty-four hours' experience added to their former stock—without any time given for reflection, except what elapsed between the opening and the reading of the letter enclosed to Sir Henry Wheatley, and brought by the servant of my noble friend—without being allowed

— spatium requiemque dolori;

having no time to mourn over the destruction of our venerable institutions, to grieve over the loss of former opinions, to balance conflicting emotions, and weep over the cruel reflection that that ruin was to be all the work of their own hands—that these men should all at once become reformers,—this, my lords, does appear to me (I use not a harsh, but a very temperate expression) one of the most unaccountable phenomena in human nature which I was ever yet called on, either as a statesman, as a philosopher, or as a man of the world, to contemplate. But it is said, "You may trust us in our conversion—this is not the first time we have changed our opinions, and sacrificed our principles, and become converts, in twenty-four hours, to the faith of our opponents." That is, it seems, their title to trust! The people have been appealed to, and they have stated the amount of confidence they are inclined to repose in the new government. The noble duke has appealed to your lordships, I suppose, on the same grounds on which the appeal was made to the country. These ministers say to the people anxious for reform, "Oh, you may well trust us; you may be sure that we are really converted—because we did the same thing before with the catholic question. Could any men," they ask, "be more strenuous in their opposition to emancipation than we had been for thirty long years? Which of us for ever opposed reform more bitterly than all of us did toleration? Trust us, then, that we shall change our principles now as completely as we did then." To be sure, this is an odd kind of ground upon which to claim trust and confidence. Nevertheless, I cannot deny the facts. No doubt they were vehement in their opposition to the emancipation within a few months of their bringing forward the measure themselves. I can bear witness to their zeal. I well recollect hearing the noble duke and the noble and learned lord on the Woolsack*—my predecessor, as he is my successor there—

* Lord Lyndhurst.

vying with each other, late in the session of 1828, in their resistance to that great measure of policy and justice; and arguing, each in his several manner, that to repeal the penal code, was to destroy our protestant constitution in church and in state. This was the view of both, at the end of one session; and they both opened the very next session, with declaring that the self-same measure of destruction to the state, must be carried, because it was necessary to save the existence of the state; and further, that theirs must be the hands to carry it through, because none but themselves could do the deed. To be sure, they begged the question here—as, indeed, the noble duke does on all occasions; it is the mode of argument by which he is uniformly and plainly distinguished. Others have recourse to it more covertly—using it with temperance—skilfully, dexterously, eloquently—I should perhaps rather say oratorically—for the noble duke is eloquent—but, bred in other pursuits, he is not rhetorical. In them the method is always recognised, though often with some difficulty, as a begging of the question. They are like the whining, coaxing, cunning mendicants, who often gain their point before we are aware of their arts: of this sort is the noble and learned lord. The noble duke goes to work more roundly—less artfully; he speaks out plainly and bluntly; he begs the question stoutly—what the law calls sturdily; but, though sturdy, he is still a beggar of the question all the same. Thus, to-night he tells us, “It was clear, every one knows, you could not go on without Lord Althorp in the Commons; therefore, it is proved, that on Lord Spencer’s death, the government was at an end:” and so, too, in 1828 and 1829, he and the noble and learned lord, each after his several kind, assumed at one time, that emancipation was ruin, and that they were bound to prevent it; at another, that it was salvation, and they were bound to effect it, and no one else could do so.

My lords, I know how some of you will be trying to answer me—I know it by experience of this House. By the self-same species of logic, when the arguments cannot be repelled, or the statements denied, it is thought more convenient, and it is no doubt more easy to say,—“Oh, we have heard a very amusing speech.” That is oftentimes said when I have exposed some ridiculous sophistry to the satisfaction of your lordships, however I might fail to gain your voices upon the exposure. When your lordships have been made sensible of the absurdity of reasonings too flimsy to bear handling,—the grossness of pretences too hollow to stand a single glance—the glaring inconsistency of men’s stories with each other—and the astonishing repugnancy of their conduct with their professions of principle—when the complete sense of such discrepancies, such self-contradictions, has forced itself on your minds, and you have felt the force of this unquestionable truth, that manifest error in argument and utter abandonment of principles in conduct become ludicrous if pushed to excess—and when I have, perchance, assisted you in arriving at the clear view of such mistakes and such misconduct which clothes the sense of truth and of honesty in ridicule of their opposites, *ridentem dicere verum*, then a feeble, a pitiable attempt is frequently made at defence,

and it ends in saying that the exposition was amusing. Amusing to the parties exposed, I have not frequently observed it to prove.

In 1828, I was proceeding to say, I well recollect the speeches of two noble lords against emancipation. The noble duke's was far less violent against the measure; the noble and learned lord was, in point of vehemence, complete: that both had equal success I will not assert. There is nothing of which I retain a livelier recollection than the inferior impression made by the noble and learned lord. The opinions he then urged—the alarms he expressed—the fate he foretold to our protestant establishment from the grant of toleration, I well remember drew forth the deepest expression of astonishment unmingled with admiration, from all who heard him, and who had been taught to expect so different a result of his former liberal and enlightened principles. Even as samples of speaking and of reasoning, neither being remarkably excellent in argument, the duke so entirely eclipsed the chancellor, that I felt for the credit of our common profession at seeing the soldier outdo the lawyer in his own line. But whatever might be the relative success in resisting the question then, their conversion to it was equally complete a few months after. The noble and learned lord was among the most nimble in that quick movement of sudden transition. He vaulted in good company—a right honourable baronet,* the nominal head of the present ministry, as the noble duke is its real chief, and a distinguished friend of his and of the establishment,† had with others been long known for their unremitting efforts against the measure, proportioned to their ardent zeal in behalf of the protestant cause, whose great champions they were admitted to be, and by whose support they had risen to power—all of them, noble dukes, learned lords, worthy baronets, and honourable gentlemen—all came round, or rather rushed over at once, and not only agreed to the measure of emancipation, not only withdrew their opposition, but tendered their services to carry it through, and were actually the men who did it. Now, this passage of their lives is what their friends appeal to with exultation and pride upon the present occasion, crying out—"Only see what men they are! Can you doubt they will reform by wholesale? What avail all their professions and pledges? True it is that no politicians ever pledged themselves so solemnly against all reform—true, that none ever so deeply committed themselves against all change—true, that none, at all times since the dawn of their public lives, ever thwarted so habitually, so pertinaciously, each measure of improvement, until beaten by majorities of the Commons. But never mind—don't doubt them—they are capable of doing again what they did before—by deserting all their old supporters, abandoning all their former principles, becoming converts in four-and-twenty hours to the faith of their adversaries, and carrying into execution, with the proverbial zeal of recent conversion, all the measures to resist which they had devoted their past lives."—Such is the argument urged in support of the present ministry, and to make

* Sir Robert Peel.

† Mr. Goulburn.

out their title to the confidence of the country. I do not deny that there is a great deal in it—I do not question that it has an immediate bearing upon the question of confidence; it seems to me that it does go a great way, indeed, to settle that question, and to decide for ever what trust they are worthy of. But let the appeal for confidence on such grounds as these not be made to us—go make it to their old allies, the enemies of the catholic question—let them appeal to the noble baron on the upper bench,* who does not so easily change his opinions—to the noble earl near him,† who sticks by his principles though abandoned by his political leaders—to the illustrious duke opposite.‡ Those noble and consistent persons have had experience of the present ministers; they have tried them; they know what they are made of; they can form—perhaps they have formed—an estimate of their trustworthiness from recollection of their past conduct; and to these noble persons I refer all who prefer a claim to support upon the ground of that conduct.

But for me, my lords, I am not to be duped a second time by such pretensions. Let me not be misunderstood; there was a time when I viewed the conduct of those no-popery converts with other feelings—I rejoiced sincerely in their conversion to the opinions which I had always maintained. But I now confess—and I am bound to state this qualification of my former opinion—I freely confess that I was a dupe on that occasion. Not on the catholic question, on which my opinions never varied—not on the excellence of that measure, though unhappily too long delayed to produce its full effect,—delayed until it had no grace of voluntary concession, and every semblance of being extorted by force,—still I hailed it with delight; but I am bound to retract the assent I then justly and fairly gave to the defence urged by those noble and right honourable persons who had brought it forward, for the sudden and (as their adversaries said) most unaccountable, most suspicious change of opinion. Themselves said they had become convinced that emancipation was necessary in order to save the state. I had never doubted that; but they declared that they had at length arrived at a knowledge of its truth; and they added, that no persons could carry the measure except themselves; and that they retained office solely in order to carry it into effect. Not that they had changed their opinions to keep their places; but that in their places, they, changing their policy, could, and alone could, carry that measure which, at the eleventh hour, they had discovered to be necessary to the safety of the empire. I listened candidly, and not only candidly, but willingly to that excuse. Anxious for the success of the measure, I did all I could to further it; and, in fact, I did more than I could be called on to do, as a party man, upon that occasion. No doubt it is said that Whig leaders are always factious, and look only to the turning out of a rival party; but I will venture now to make this statement, which I have never made in public before—that the late Mr. Huskisson and myself, at five o'clock on a Thursday

* Lord Kenyon.

† Lord Mansfield.

‡ Duke of Cumberland.

evening—a very remarkable day in the recollection of some present (seeing that they were said to have been then dismissed from his Majesty's service on account of the catholic question)—we, having had the statement of what was going on at Windsor, purposely communicated to us by a friend still living, and in a high station, took our measures accordingly. Mr. Huskisson, with that honest love of truth and steady devotion to whatever line of policy he thought it his duty to pursue, which ever marked his course, got up in his place,—myself acting in concert with him,—both took occasion to make avowals in Parliament for the purpose of its being known elsewhere, and preventing the dismissal then contemplated—avowals which proved that no power on earth could induce either of us to take office, or be accessory to any arrangement for succeeding those who were about to be expelled on account of the catholic bill. I felt then, as I do now, and have already declared,—that the individual who takes an office from which another minister has been removed, in law and in fact, renders himself responsible for the dismissal, and on that principle I acted. I showed plainly that I should refuse to take office, and announced that office would be offered to me in vain, because I knew that no man could then be accessory to any new ministerial arrangement, without incurring, by that fact, the fearful responsibility of producing remediless evil to the state. I knew that office would have been offered, not so as to render us odious in the eyes of all men if we accepted—not on the condition of abandoning our principles,—not that we should succeed those who insisted on carrying the question in order to prevent it being carried,—no such thing,—but I knew if office were tendered at all, with what professions it would be offered. It would not be asked of me that I should come into office, and be disgraced for ever by the sacrifice of my principles. It would be offered in the same way as I know it was threatened to be offered when that most disgraceful of all proceedings, the Princess of Wales's affair, was to be forced upon the ministry,—and I should be told that I need not give up my principles, and that we could carry that great measure instead of our adversaries. I, however, would be a party to no arrangement which would have the effect of removing that government from office upon any such grounds. I steadfastly and decidedly declared that determination, and the illustrious duke and the noble lord kept their places to carry that measure which they felt to be indispensable for the safety of the empire, and which they said they felt also that they could most effectually carry. Their conduct at least was suspicious—it was surrounded with equivocal circumstances. All appearances, all facts were clearly against them; and suggestion, and argument, and declaration only for them. There is, in truth, always cause for suspicion when there is a sudden and an unaccountable change of principle, and reverse of conduct.

It is always suspicious when people change their principle and gain something—although, certainly, it may be a proof, in some cases, of magnanimity and honest devotion to the public wellbeing. But that is a case which should occur only once in a statesman's life. A man

may once get himself into that false position—he may once expose himself with impunity to such a load of suspicion; but he must beware of trying such an experiment a second time; for assuredly, no weight of reputation, no amount of public service, would ever enable any one with impunity to play the same game twice. At all events, circumstances are now materially changed; and if the noble duke thought he alone could carry the emancipation bill before, by remaining in office, and was therefore justified in resolving to carry it, assuredly he is not the only one who, in the opinion of the country, is competent now to carry into operation the principles of reform. There might, in fact, be some excuse for the course taken with respect to emancipation. It could then be said by the noble duke, “I have always been opposed to emancipation; but I am now willing to concede it, because I feel it necessary for the safety of the state.” Such an apology might be offered then; but there is a wide difference, indeed, between that case and the present. How can a man say that he is an opponent of reform, that he has done all in his power to defeat the measure—that he has assisted in procuring the dismissal from office of the men by whom that measure has been carried—but that still, now he is in office, he is willing and anxious to carry into effect the principles on which that measure was founded? Would any one place faith in such a conversion?

It is well for such men to say, “give us a trial; don’t be uncandid; don’t refuse your confidence until you have given us a trial.” To that I will take upon myself to answer, that they have been tried all their lives; that they have been upon a constant course of trial, and their long series of trials, their many years of probation, have ended in a course of convictions—not of being the friends, but the bitterest enemies of reform. Let me put a case to your lordships,—Who would take his servant, in this way, or under those circumstances? A set of servants whose conduct and whose character are known by experience, come and offer themselves for employment in a situation from which they had been turned off; they are told by their former master that he cannot employ them, as he has no confidence in them. “What!” exclaim they, “won’t you give us a trial? Surely you won’t send us away without a trial?”—“Ay, but” (the master replies) “you have been in my service at least a dozen years, and during that time I have for ever had to complain of your mal-practices. I have found your accounts irregular, and that the mistakes have always been in your own favour; you never would see that the needful repairs were done; you let the furniture go to ruin, and the house was ready to tumble about my ears; therefore I have had trial of you sufficient; but if you want places, why don’t you go to the honest gentleman that used to live over the way, and is now settled at Prague, having gone back in the world; he wants a set of servants, having lost his late ones, whom you so closely resemble, that it is a matter of doubt which will suit him best; go to him and he’ll be glad to have you; but for me, I have had enough of you.”

It has been said, again and again, place confidence in the ministry till you see reason for withdrawing that confidence; but does not this

appear to your lordships a joke too stale to last? What confidence can be placed in a ministry like the present, who have come forward as reformers? They, indeed, reformers! But it is said that they have turned over a new leaf; they will reform the law, they will reform the municipal corporations, they will reform the church, they will give the dissenters all they ask, save that which they ask most; nay, they will make marriage a civil contract, repeal the marriage act, and abolish publication of banns. But are not your lordships prepared to ask,—If these were their objects, why so hastily turn off the reform Parliament? The reform Parliament was ready-made to their hand, if reform was their object. It was the child and champion of the reform bill—the produce of its youthful vigour, before excess had enervated it, or intrigues seduced, or time enfeebled; yet, the very first act which they did was to extinguish that reformed Parliament—and why?—Why, because they were reformers, and because they wished to give reform to the people! The real fact is, they dissolved that Parliament because it was a reformed and a reforming Parliament, and because they wanted another which was neither. Again, what has been the conduct of the present government at the general election which has just taken place? Whenever it happened that a gentleman appeared on the hustings to support violent reform measures, I can very well understand why the noble duke should say, “don’t let the government give him their support, for although the government is composed of reformers, yet it is of moderate reformers”—but where a moderate reformer and an anti-reformer have appeared on the hustings, I will only ask the House which of those men government have supported? Nay, they actually brag that they have got ninety or ninety-five anti-reformers into the present Parliament, and that this was the sole purpose of the dissolution!

Is this, my lords, a specimen of their new-born zeal for reform—is this a retracing of their steps? Alas! I fear all that has been urged as to the inconsistency between their preceding conduct and their sudden change of opinions, will vanish into air when put in contrast with the first act of their administration in dissolving the reformed Parliament; and their second in opposing every reform candidate who appeared on the hustings. I fear all this zeal is but of a piece with all that the same men did in reference to the catholic emancipation bill. I care not, my lords, for all their professions; but I do agree with my noble friend lately at the head of the government, that any thing louder or more solemn as a warning, descriptive of the people’s feelings, could not be given than the crash which has been given to the new ministry by the results of the late elections. No man, save in the small towns whose close corporations predominate, and in one or two counties peculiarly circumstanced, has ventured to come to the hustings, except under the colours of reform; the only exceptions have occurred in some county where undue influence prevailed, or in some borough where corruption existed, that required to be reformed. I shall be curious to see what government do in reference to these places. If the ministers are sincere, I expect that the first step they

take will be to reform those municipal corporations, where corrupt practices even thus recently have been carried on, and members returned in direct opposition to the principles of the reform bill. I shall be anxious to observe, whether or no they will propose to disfranchise the boroughs from which they have obtained their anti-reform members. I shall reckon upon their giving up to the knife of the reformers, their only borough supporters. But to let that pass, I will confidently assert that the exceptions with regard to the character of the late returns, only confirm the general rule.

There is, indeed, another class of exceptions, which, for the character of English gentlemen and the honour of the country, I should hope comprise but very few cases. I allude to those candidates who outbid their opponents (when asked by their constituents what their sentiments were with respect to the present government), in supporting extensive reform, and in strenuous opposition to the present ministry, and who were returned to Parliament solely by the force of such professions. These men who thus outbid men less liberal of their promises, have yet had the audacity to come forward in the House of Commons, to turn sharp round and violate all those promises and forfeit those very pledges by which they had succeeded in defeating honest adversaries who did not bid so high. There is no other example of so vile a trick ever being practised upon the people, and the people, I trust, will never forget or forgive it. Upon the whole, my lords, I confess that my hopes from the present government of any thing like reform, are very limited; and, although they expect, as I hear, some support from the present Parliament, the statement of that expectation has been accompanied with very plain indications, that if they do not receive it, they will have recourse to the desperate expedient of a second and immediate dissolution. Now, although there was a sort of clamour raised a little while since, when my noble friend mentioned his understanding to that effect,—although such a scheme was not admitted to exist, and it was said that the ministers had never held out the threat,—yet the noble duke, when on his legs, took, I remarked, no opportunity of denying it. My own apprehension is, therefore, that some such rash attempt as that will be resorted to if necessary;—an attempt, my lords, which I will boldly say, would be an invasion upon the constitution of the country—a direct attack on that constitution, and a fatal inroad on the best and only security of the throne itself. This, I would have your lordships observe, is far from being a chimerical notion, and I would exhort the country well to mark it. But then, will nothing really be done against the reform bill itself? When I recollect the language with which that measure was received by some parties, on its first introduction to the legislature,—when I know, that, in one House of Parliament, it was denounced in distinct terms by the present ministers and their friends, on various discussions, as a measure of the most desperate tendency—when I heard them describe it as planting in this country the worst despotism that ever existed in any part of the civilized world:—as a measure which would bring into the house mob-demagogues, while it

excluded all the wise and good,—which would confiscate all the property in the funds,—effect the abolition of the nobility, and the destruction of tithes, and would tear the crown from the brow of the sovereign:—when, in one House, it was thus described, and when, in the other, it was (perhaps not in such set terms, but in language of similar import) characterized in a protest on the journals, as inconsistent with the safety of the monarchy and the best institutions of the country—nay, as fatal to them all;—when I remind your lordships that these were the opinions, and this the language, of the present ministers regarding the reform bill; am I, in your dispassionate judgment, entertaining a vague, a groundless, a chimerical, a fantastic, apprehension, when I own that I believe the bill will not be safe in their keeping? I do not think that they will be doing justice to their own consciences, if they do not attempt something to thwart the working of that bill, and proceed, as soon as they have the power, or can muster the courage, to repeal it.

Why then, I ask your lordships to regard the question in this point of view, and to consider what ought to be—and if they are in the least degree consistent or honest—what must be the conduct of ministers the instant they can obtain a Tory majority in the Commons? Are they not bound to work it against a bill which they so depicted? I only know how I should feel, and how I should, as a matter of course, act, were the case mine. I will for a moment suppose myself placed in a parallel situation;—I will suppose that, contrary to all my strongest opinions, deeply rooted principles, and powerful feelings, politically and as an individual, a clamour should arise in this country against the policy of the slave trade abolition act, and the late emancipation, and their supporters,—I will imagine that there is a violent change in the public mind on the question—that massacres have taken place in the West India Islands—that the West India interest in this country has become depressed and about to be overwhelmed, by the ruinous state of the colonial markets—I will suppose that so complete a reaction, as it is called, has taken place on the subject of slavery, and even the slave trade, as to be deemed by some to furnish a sufficient reason for bringing in a bill immediately to abolish the great measure of negro emancipation,—if I should unhappily live to see that day, my lords, under the pressure even of such a dire emergency, I can answer for myself. There would be no language that I could use, which I should fail to employ in deprecating such a step, or in raising the country, and rousing Parliament and the government against it; nor would I refrain from agitating the empire, and even attempting to exasperate mankind against so horrid an iniquity. But, supposing such a measure were to be carried by a majority of forty-four (the majority on the repeal of the test and corporation acts), should I, think you, be the person to come down the next day, and say, “here am I, ready to help you in this work of wickedness! A vote has passed against me, and I—yes I—am the man to carry that vote into operation?” Never, my lords,—never! Should I do as those men did in 1832, when, having defeated us on the reform bill,

they actually offered to carry, themselves, the very measure against which they had, for above twelve months, been pouring out all their invectives—offered to carry this ruinous bill themselves, now that they thought office within their reach—but the loud universal shriek of public indignation scared them! Never! never! If the country were so sunk, so brutalized, as to repeal sacred laws, founded (like the emancipation and abolition acts) on justice and mercy, I would say, let them try; but mine should not be the unholy hand to assist, in any way, in destroying a measure of such wise and generous policy. I might, if madness and wickedness were to triumph, be reduced for a time to despair, but I would live on in the ardent hope of being able, in better times, to undo a proceeding of such frightful iniquity. Whether I were in or out of office, I should never cease to protest against such unrighteousness, nor to maintain, through good and evil fortune, that cause which I have ever supported, not for the sake of place, but from the immutable principles of humanity and justice. Supposing, on the other hand, that I had come into office again, and were once more clothed with power to make my opinions and my wishes effective, I should feel myself bound in sound principle—in honest sentiment—in common consistency and good faith—to labour night and day to extirpate so enormous an evil as the re-establishment of a system of cruelty against which I had striven from the beginning to the end. While, therefore, my lords, I feel that I should be bound myself to act in that way in the case I have imagined, can I suppose that the noble lords opposite would or could do otherwise, in the like circumstances, with regard to the reform bill? Really, I am only giving them credit for acting with the same integrity that I myself would display in their situation. It is, then, for these reasons that I am confident the noble lords opposite would, if they obtained a majority, conduct their proceedings in a spirit opposed to the security of the reform bill, and seize the first opportunity, after obtaining the power, to repeal it. Although, therefore, I will not undertake to say what would be the course of the present government, if such a reaction took place as should return a Parliament to their mind; yet I ought in justice to give them credit for consistency, and for common honesty; and I ask whether if, by wearing out the patience of the people with repeated dissolutions, or by force, or by corruption, if by these or by other practices they could get a majority in their favour, whether (giving them credit for consistency, and bearing in mind their denunciations against the reform bill)—they would not try again to reconstruct the representative system; and introduce, haply among other improvements, a part of the old constitution, which was declared by the noble duke to be so perfect that the art of man could invent nothing to equal it?—namely, the department of rotten boroughs? I have heard the noble duke and the right honourable baronet at the head of the government declare that the reform bill was now part and parcel of the constitution. That may be all very true; but still the melancholy case is, that six years ago the protestant establishment was just as much in their eyes, part and parcel of the constitution, and

just as often on their lips as sacred and inviolable; yet they passed the catholic emancipation bill, which they had declared would pull down the protestant establishment. So when they now acquiesce in the reform bill, which they formerly said would destroy the constitution, introduce mob-demagogues, abolish nobility, and pluck the crown from the sovereign's head, why may not they hereafter set it aside as they did the penal code which they had never once blamed, but always covered over with their praises? The very same would be the result, if, some fine day, a general election were to take place, and a feeling to be prevalent against the reform bill. Away, then, would go all their professions about that bill being a part of the constitution. Could it be wondered at, if (a conservative majority being once obtained) it should be pretended that the alteration first, and then the repeal of that reform act had become necessary to save the empire, that the people were now against it, and that none were so fit as those ministers themselves to abrogate it? Observe the consequences of thus taking up and laying down opinions so lightly on great questions of policy! See the result of that course which these men have been pursuing—whose principles hang about them like their clothes,—who put on a belief in some great constitutional point, as a man does a cloak, to disguise or to shelter him, and then throws it aside the moment it begins to impede his walking where he wants to go! Mark, too, how convenient the *test* is by which such men discover when it is right to change their doctrines! Necessity for the safety of the state—a general opinion in the country! Why, these are things that we can have no standard for ascertaining, and each person may and will judge for himself; that is to say, when his interest suits, he will readily find the necessity to be urgent, and the people to be convinced. To-day the penal code alone can keep us protestant, and all the people are anti-catholic; to-morrow emancipation is your only panacea, and the country has come round against the Orange party. Now reform is part of the constitution, and no man thinks of rescinding it; and now the evils they had all along foretold have come to pass from that ill-omened innovation; schedule A is our sheet-anchor, and the country are tired of the bill. All hues, from orange to green, all shades, from revolutionary to conservative, can, upon these principles (am I to call them?) be made familiar as the purpose of the day requires, and the country can have no security in any pledges or in any professions. But the country has a security in its own hands, God be thanked, and if it be wise, that security it never will part with. To the people I will turn (among whom there remains some value for consistency and public principle), and I will tell them,—“Never be the dupes of untried men—but above all never give your confidence to those who have betrayed you—stick fast by them that have been your firm friends, your constant supporters—trust the men who, standing by you through good and through evil fortune, have fought by your side the battles of the constitution—cling to those who have ever maintained, at all hazards to themselves, the rights which are dearest to you, the policy which your most sacred interests and fondest wishes

have made your own—nor ever for an instant dream that the reform bill which they gave you, and the constitution with which it has blest you, and the valuable improvements which have already flowed from it, and the yet more precious fruits which it has still to produce, can be safe for an hour, in the keeping of those professing politicians, now so fair-spoken, who, from the hour that the name of reform was first pronounced, have never, till they turned the authors of it out of their places, on account of it, ceased, by day or night, to curse it and to resist. Above all, listen not to men's promises who have before forfeited their pledges; and trust not their professions of favour to a system they detest, when they destroyed with their own hands the system they once loved, and had vowed and sworn for ever to maintain!"

What may be the issue of the conflict into which the noble duke has thought fit voluntarily to enter, as regards either the country or the different branches of the legislature, it is not for me to say. He has often been in desperate situations, or all but desperate, and, having been extricated by feats of fortune almost miraculous, he is not unnaturally sanguine in his views of things, and has a reliance upon his good star. So, for aught I know, he may be reckoning upon a majority in the House of Commons, although that assembly would not even wait till there was a speaker in the chair, but declared at once against him, rejected his candidate for the place, and made choice of ours. He will, however, try again, and I doubt not more than one defeat he will bear, and continue confident. But of one thing I am absolutely certain—if any desperate attempt be made to overawe the people of this country by force and power, or to wear out their patience by repeated appeals to their sense, as it is called—but which will speedily prove appeals to feelings and to energies of a very different kind, or I greatly mistake the nature of my countrymen—if any audacious attempt is made to set at naught the result of the appeal already made, and already responded to through the people's representatives—if that appeal, made in circumstances the most favourable to those who tried the rash experiment, shall be passed over as if it had never been resorted to—and if the government shall now no longer be carried on as, in all past times, our wisest, and ablest, and most honest—ay, and our most firm-minded statesmen were content to wield it, I mean in respectful deference to the sense of the people, in compliance with their wishes, declared regularly and constitutionally by their representatives in Parliament assembled;—if, on the contrary, the executive government is now, for the first time, to be administered in direct opposition to, in open defiance of, the opinions and the feelings of the people—then wo be unto them, whosoever they be, that shall recklessly attempt to rule in despite of the Commons, and set up the Lords in their stead! For they will then set up, in this once free country, and in place of its limited and popular government, the domination of an aristocracy, universally, proverbially, allowed to be, of all forms of misrule, the most execrable, while it fails even of obtaining respect by its power.

My lords, I feel bound, by a deep sense of public duty, to express my apprehension of the perils that are approaching us. In certain quarters, where power now resides, I believe that the design exists of despising the sense of the Commons, and of running counter to it while this House stands by the ministers. The weightiest matters are disregarded as frivolous because transacted in the other House; the most threatening indications of distrust are set at naught, because they proceed from the representatives of the people. Your lordships are significantly reminded that majorities in the Lords are to be considered as well as majorities in the Commons; and the declared want of confidence in one branch of the legislature is to be overbalanced by the overflowing favour shown in the overpowering majority of the other. I solemnly warn you, that this is not a wise resolution—not a judicious course—not a safe principle of action. If any one thing more than any other could make this House utterly hateful to the country, it would be the fatal step of the Crown retreating from the distrust of the Commons, and seeking shelter in the protection of the Lords—relying upon the support of the nobility, while it ceased to prize, and neglected to win, the approbation and the affections of the people!

S P E E C H

UPON THE

BUSINESS OF PARLIAMENT.

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

JUNE 5, 1837.

INTRODUCTION.

THE following speech deals with a subject of the greatest practical importance. The vast reform which it prefaced in the business of Parliament, has since been worked for a session with the most perfect success. A committee of five peers, who take little or no part in private bills, has been chosen by the House early in the session, and has selected five others successively to be the committee on each bill. These have heard and decided, as it were judicially, on all cases, and given the greatest satisfaction to the parties, by their despatch of business, their impartiality, and their careful attention to the subject. It is deeply to be lamented that this great improvement should still be confined to the Lords.

PREFACE TO THE SEPARATE PUBLICATION.

THE friends of the reform bill appear to be very generally agreed that some material alterations in its provisions are proved by experience to be necessary; while its adversaries will in all probability resist any further change. But whatever prospects the people may have of being able to remove the evils complained of in the manner of electing their representatives, and in the qualification of electors, it seems to be admitted on all hands that some remedy must be found for the abuses which prevail in the mode of conducting Parliamentary business; and this would be equally necessary if the reform of the representation were already perfected.

The House of Lords last session justly gained great credit by adopting a completely new method of dealing with private bills; and, although this is very far from being the most effectual remedy for the evil, the adoption of it was certainly as great a step towards such a remedy as could be made by either House singly, without an act of Parliament. That the late House of Commons did not adopt a similar measure, created considerable disappointment at the time; but it may be hoped that this delay has only been occasioned by the desire of making the reform so universally called for, more searching. To suppose that the new Parliament can neglect this duty, would be unjustly, and at any rate prematurely, to reflect upon its character.

S P E E C H .

MY LORDS,

I **RISE**, pursuant to the notice which I have given, to call the attention of your lordships to what must be regarded as of paramount importance; I mean, the state of business in this House, and, as connected with it, the state of business also in the other House of Parliament, to which the mischiefs so justly complained of are chiefly, though I will not say entirely, owing. We have been sitting between four and five months, and we have done little or nothing. We have passed one bill which at first gave rise to some discussion on one or two particular points, but, in the shape in which it has now passed, it is identically the same that was adopted by a committee of your lordships' house two years ago. That bill was this year moved by the master of the rolls. It was found that four or five alterations had been made in the measure of 1835. I took occasion to express my doubts as to some of those alterations, and my decided objection to others. The alterations have been, one after another, abandoned, and the bill left the House, in all its provisions identically the same with the measure which left the committee two years ago, having then come up from the House of Commons. I cannot, then, congratulate your lordships on having done much in passing that bill. Then, there is another—the municipal corporation bill—a measure of great importance, no doubt, but one that underwent, last session, very severe scrutiny in a committee of your lordships, and it might as well have passed last year. But, with the exception of these two bills, has any one thing been done this session, to the fifth month of which we are now arrived? There is, in fact, absolutely nothing, with the exception, indeed, of your agreeing to the resolutions against the province of Canada. Upon those resolutions your lordships unanimously concurred with the other house. As Bayes says, in the "Rehearsal," "When they do agree, their agreement is wonderful." Upon those resolutions, and the unhappy proceedings of this House respecting them, I have often before stated my opinion, and to repeat it now would be unavailing. This, then, is all we have done; and any other bills submitted to your consideration must be brought forward at so late a period, that it will be almost impossible to give them any kind of attention. The case is precisely the same as it was in the session of 1835. Nothing is done in the beginning of the session; indeed, hardly anything until the month of July, when the whole of the business is thrown upon us; and that is crowded into three or four weeks, which, to be fairly done,—to be efficiently accom-

plished, after being deliberately considered,—ought to be spread over the whole of the seven months.

In 1835, I felt it my duty to complain of, and openly to lament and to blame, the course pursued by the majority of your lordships; but I should be wanting in common candour if I were, during the present session, to state that, except as regards one measure, of great importance (the Irish corporation bill), the blame rested with the majority of your lordships. I must, indeed, at the same time confess, that I look with fear and trembling to the course which you may be induced to pursue with some of those measures which remain to be brought before you; but I should be guilty of a gross breach of candour if I was not at once to admit, that if your lordships were to take the course which it is generally understood you intend to take,—if you postpone your decision upon the measures which may come from the House of Commons in the course of the next six weeks or two months,—I should be doing injustice to your lordships, if I did not at once admit, that the fault is not at your doors, but at the doors of others. I can understand the doctrine of those who say that it would be better to have a constitution differently moulded;—they may be wrong, yet they hold that opinion consistently. They say, “Let us have no more of the House of Lords;” and that I can understand, though I may not be able to concur with them. I can understand too, though not so clearly, because it has never been stated so distinctly, the proposition of those who say, “The House of Lords, as now constituted, is ill adapted to exercise legislative functions; and, therefore, its construction should be reformed.” They may hold that doctrine erroneously, but they hold it consistently, compared with those who say, there ought to be a House of Lords,—who are satisfied with the present constitution of this House; who hold that a second House of Parliament to revise the proceedings of the Commons, and to originate measures of its own, is a necessary part of the constitution, or, if not absolutely necessary, is at least highly expedient,—and who, nevertheless, maintaining this doctrine, and resting their faith on it, take such precautions as make it absolutely—I was going to say physically—impossible that this second house of Parliament should exercise any of those functions which they say are so essential, and which, at all events, are, under the existing constitution, its just and lawful attributes—to crowd into three or four weeks the measures which ought to take three or four months at least, in order that they may have a chance of being well understood, and fairly discussed, and safely passed into laws, by the machinery of that constitution which those persons defend, and will not have changed—this conduct of theirs is utterly and hopelessly inconsistent.

Having said so much of the mischief, I would now entreat your lordships to look at what may be considered as the source from which it arises; and, neither in what I have said, nor in what I am about to state, do I take upon myself to throw blame upon any quarter whatever. I have no right,—and far be it from me to wish I had a right,—to attribute this delay to the proceedings of the other co-ordinate

branch of the legislature, for which, as representing the people of this country, I do, and ever shall, entertain the most profound respect—a respect which, I trust, is shared with the large majority of those whom I have the honour to address. Nor do I wish to cast blame on the conduct of any individual members, and I will resort to no irregular information. The only means I have of scrutinizing the proceedings of that House, are those of which they have themselves put us in possession, namely, their printed and published votes. I ascribe no blame whatever to my noble friend near me, at the head of his Majesty's government. I may regret, perhaps, that the ministers have not introduced some of their bills into your lordships' House. No doubt they had sufficient reasons for not doing so; and, therefore,—although it is impossible not to regret that those bills which might just as well have been brought into a house that had nothing to do as into a house which had far too much,—I presume not to blame any one, or to impute any motives; but, without attempting to assign reasons of a party or personal kind, I think I have a right to state what appear to me to be one or two of the prevailing causes of that obstruction to the public business which all persons in both Houses of Parliament agree in complaining of.

Now, one cause may be, the privileges of the other House of Parliament, in respect of money bills and money clauses. Those privileges prevent the introduction into your lordships' House of many measures, which are either money bills, or are mixed up with money clauses; and of the operation of these exclusive privileges of the other House we had some experience in the Dublin police bill, a few nights ago. The consequence is, that a vast proportion of bills is admitted not to be within the original jurisdiction of this House, and only receivable here after passing the other House of Parliament. At one time it was supposed that these privileges extended much further, and that no bill in which penalties were introduced could originate in this House. The inconvenience was long submitted to; but the mischief we are now complaining of,—viz. the postponement of the business of the House during the first months of the session,—was so much felt, that it was found necessary to bring the subject forward in the other House, and my right honourable friend the member for Montgomeryshire,* in concurrence with the then speaker,† carried resolutions which enabled you to originate in this House bills with penalties. Now that relaxation of the Commons' privileges might be extended a good deal further, without, in any way, interfering with what is most justly regarded as the exclusive right of the Commons, viz. that of levying taxes upon the people, and appropriating their produce. Without infringing upon that undoubted privilege, I cannot help thinking that some further relaxation might be made in parliamentary practice, which would be attended with the best consequences to the public business,—would tend to the improvement of legislation, as well as

* Mr. Wynne.

† Lord Canterbury.

the convenience of members in both Houses of Parliament, and would, especially, spread the business of this House more equally over the session.

There is a second cause of obstruction, to which, however, I shall only advert, because it unquestionably is the right of parties to exercise their own discretion, in which House they shall choose to present their bills, and this cannot be made matter of regulation, either as to public or to private bills. I must say, however, that the general and the just complaint of the whole government business being postponed to the end of the session leads to the expression of a desire that the government should begin earlier, and begin in this House, whatever measures can be introduced here. My observation is not directed against the present government or the last,—against this Parliament or the preceding one; the system is in fault, and individuals ought not to bear the blame.

But there is a subject which I consider far more important than all these, an evil for which it is not impossible to provide a remedy. I allude to the manner of conducting the private business of Parliament, the mass of which is enormous, and perhaps has been increasing of late years (although certainly not so much as is by some supposed). There can be no doubt that this is a very great burden to both Houses of Parliament, and a serious obstruction to legislation on public measures. Beside occasioning this obstruction to public business, the course of proceeding is such as to transact the private business in the least satisfactory way; it is not only not reasonably well done, but it could hardly be worse done. As to its obstructing the public business, only see how it works. The members are occupied the whole morning in attending to private bills. When, in your lordships' House, ten or twelve committees are sitting; and, in the other House, from twenty to thirty, at one and the same time;—when members are obliged to attend those committees from the middle of the day to the sitting of the House,—when many of them are harassed, even before their attendance begins, by private communications with the parties interested,—in many cases with their constituents,—even if they have no private business of their own, no domestic concerns to occupy them;—their whole mornings are thus engrossed. And, after the labour of the day, consider what the state of members of the other House must be, when five o'clock comes,—how ill calculated they are to continue their attendance,—and you will allow that nothing can be more likely than the want of members enough to make a House, or to keep it together. It is not to be wondered at, if the result should be that the House does not sit at all for one or two days during each week; and that, during one or two other days, after sitting for an hour or two, they are counted out; and that it is always found more expedient to adjourn at a certain hour than to go on, although there are thirty or forty orders, and seventy or eighty notices, which crowd the books. Of the amount of business begun in that House, your lordships may satisfy yourselves by looking to its records. On the first night of the present session, seventy-one notices were given, upon subjects, from the most impor-

tant to what—I will not say—were the most trifling that could be entertained; for no matter can be trifling which is the subject of a parliamentary notice. But that number of notices was given; some of them upon subjects of the highest importance to the interests of the nation and of mankind; others, certainly, of lesser moment;—and those seventy-one were increased to one hundred in the first week of the House's sitting. Of these matters, if I might venture to speak, I should say a very moderate per centage only has been disposed of, although they have been four or five months on the books. Nay, a very moderate per centage of them has ever gone beyond the embryo state of notices; the great bulk, continuing in the first stage of their existence, are mere notices still.

Oppressed, then, as the other House is with this heavy load of business, and incapable,—I will not say of expediting it—I will not say of getting through it—but incapable of making even a serious impression on it, as your lordships would be if you had as much to do, and as many private bills to expedite at the same time, let us see how the private business fares. Its amount is very large, and its importance, although not so paramount as that of the public business, is yet very great. Parliament, in a session, deals with a greater amount of property, and disposes of a greater number of questions affecting the interests of individuals, than all the courts of law and equity, in a year. I find that, in the course of the last five years, exclusive of the present session, the average number of local and private acts was 161 each year; there having been not less than 191 passed during the last of those years. In former years there were more. Thus, in the year 1825 there were 282; and, in the year after, when the delusion of joint-stock companies was at an end, there were upwards of 200 private bills. Going back to the sessions at the close of the war, in that of 1812–13, the number was 295; in 1813–14, it amounted to 298; going still further back, I find the number, in the session of 1791–2, to be 150, and in 1792–3, it advanced to 210. I have a list of fourteen towns which, during the last twelve years, have each obtained three local acts; a list of six, which have each required five for their government, during the same period; and of three, which have had seven; Bristol and Westminster have had eight; Birmingham and Dublin, ten; Southwark has had twelve; Edinburgh and Glasgow, twenty each; and one, Liverpool, no less than twenty-three; and, during that period of twelve years, there have been no less than 275 bills, making local regulations for only forty-five towns. The number of folio pages devoted to this branch of legislation—to private acts passed within the last session—was upwards of 9000. During the last six years and a half, since the accession of his present Majesty, there are nearer 24,000 than 23,000 folio pages added to the statute book by the private bill legislation.

I have stated the number of acts passed in the last twelve years for some of the great towns. This species of legislation, however, is not confined to towns; separate parishes have their numerous acts also. In Marylebone alone, since the year 1795, the local legislation fills a

volume containing 480 pages; being much greater, I will not say, than the Code of Napoleon, but certainly than the Code Civile. Now each of those numberless acts, I beg your lordships to recollect, has the effect of suspending, changing, or reversing the law of the land, in particular cases, and wholly interrupting the exercise of the most important private rights; altering the law under which men have made their contracts, held their property, settled their affairs, and under the shelter of which they supposed themselves safe; giving rights which the law repudiated, powers which the law abhorred; authorizing some men to do what the law prohibited to all, and sanctioning that as lawful which the general law of the land denounced, forbade, compensated, punished. That such legislative operations as these should be performed in haste, without the caution and the circumspection which their transcendent nature demands—that the rights of parties should be violated by special enactments contrary to the general law of the land, without the fullest notice, the amplest opportunity of resistance,—without throwing wide open the doors of Parliament to all whose interests might by possibility be affected, is utterly inconceivable, and would be intolerable if it came to pass. But it is not enough that notice should be given, and the doors flung open to all parties, nor even that those parties should enter in and attend the proceedings; it is absolutely necessary, if the most flagrant injustice and oppression are to be avoided, that they should be fully heard, and patiently listened to,—that the court should not proceed a step without hearing them; and that when it does come to a decision, none should presume to take a part in the determination but those who have listened to the whole matter upon which they are judging. In a court of law, where the question is of fact merely, or of applying the known and existing law to the particular case, what should we say if we were told that a judge who had not heard the evidence, or the argument, had pronounced a decision affecting any party to the amount of the fraction of a farthing, while those who had heard the cause abstained from taking any part in the decision? I put it to any man, lawyer or layman, whether such a statement would not instantly be rejected as inconceivable? I grieve, however, to say, that as what seems impossible sometimes turns out to be true, so what would be regarded as inconceivable in an ordinary judicial proceeding, has constantly come to pass in the exercise of high legislative functions in both Houses of Parliament. I seek not to cast blame on any individuals; it is the system of which I complain,—the practice which by long usage has grown up and become inveterate. With regard to members of the House of Commons, the case is, indeed, different from ours. Men act there under the influence, not merely of the importunity of friends, which may be resisted, but the importunity of constituents, which cannot be so easily disregarded.

I know not whether, strictly speaking, the constituents have not, as some authorities maintain, a claim on their representatives for assistance in passing or opposing local acts. If I were asked by any particular class of individuals to support a particular measure in this

House, I have it in my power at once to reply, that I am here in my individual capacity, and represent no one; but a man's constituents may, for anything I know, have a right to say—"You are the representative of our interests, and belong to a House which consists of all interests acting by deputy." It is true that an individual, elected a member of Parliament, ought to consider himself the representative, not of his constituents, but of the community at large. It certainly is his duty to consult the interests of the country as a whole. But it may also be alleged that his constituents, in so far as their local concerns are affected, have a peculiar claim on him, and are to be represented by his voice as if they were themselves present. Be this, however, as it may, we are to see how the House of Commons proceeds in discharging this branch of its duties.

The attendance of the members on railway committees is, by a late standing order, recorded in the votes; and I find from that record of their proceedings, which I hold in my hand, that the attendance on one bill which I will not name, or refer to further than to say that it has been before the House this session, was as follows:—At the first meeting of the committee there were present forty-eight members, then forty, then forty-four, then forty-two, and then forty. I will suppose that every one person who was entered as nominally attending, did attend the whole time; but it is possible that only five or six out of the forty gave a continued attendance, and that the rest came occasionally, and went. The average attendance for the first six days was forty-three; but the committee did not rest on the seventh day; on the contrary, there was an unusual attendance; it looked as if they were disposed to work double tides. Suddenly, the number who appeared rose from forty to seventy-one. One naturally asks, what could be the meaning of so sudden an increase? How was it that, there having been only about forty during the first six days, on the seventh day there should be an influx of thirty additional members? The riddle is soon solved by what followed: there was a vote, and on that vote I find that sixty-five divided. So that, though there were never more than forty-two or forty-three present during the hearing of the business, while the counsel delivered their speeches and the witnesses were examined, yet the question coming before the committee for decision, it was determined by the votes of sixty-five individuals! Some who thus divided had never attended till the sixth day, and there were several who attended for the first time on the day of the division. This course of proceeding is not confined to the case of which I have been speaking; it is of ordinary occurrence. I will give another instance still more remarkable. In the case to which I am about to advert, the committee sat for fourteen days. In the course of the eleventh and three subsequent days, there were six divisions; out of these six, three were equally balanced, and the matter was decided by the casting vote of the chairman. On the other three divisions there never was a greater majority than one; the numbers were seven to six, or six to five; so that the going out of a member who had been present, or the coming in of a member who had not

been there before—and who, consequently, could not have heard a syllable of the evidence or argument—governed the decision. For the first ten days that the committee sat, the numbers who attended ran thus:—In the beginning there were seventeen, then thirteen, then seventeen, then eighteen; then, when they had got into about the thick of the business, the numbers dropped down to ten; the next day they were seven; then they began to rise again, and your lordships will possibly suspect the reason of this rise. From seven they mounted to sixteen, from sixteen to twenty-four, from twenty-four to twenty-six, from twenty-six to twenty-eight, thus rapidly reaching that number of twenty-eight on the eleventh day. This is accounted for by a division taking place on that day. Now, seven of those who divided could not be found amongst the twenty-eight who had given their attendance; they were seen on that occasion, but they never had been seen or heard of before. The subjects to which this committee devoted its attention were of a peculiar description, and most remarkably precise was it in the results to which it arrived. One of the questions to be answered being the number of passengers that would be conveyed daily on that line of road, I find them estimated at 513 and 7-8ths of a passenger! Such at least is the result of dividing the sum which the committee found, and to this exact result did those come who had been absent all the while! The parties were also fractionally accurate as to the income to be divided between the shareholders, which was stated to be £31,751, 18s. 4d. The committee reported that “the line and its branches, in an engineering point of view, were peculiarly fitting for their purpose; that the gradients and curves were favourable; that the steepest gradient was 1 in 290, and that extended over a mile and a quarter,” &c. Why, to learn this language, it was necessary to attend for two or three days together on the committee.

But see the kind of proposition to which the absentees gave their willing assent! They declared by their votes, that the smallest radius of curvature was one mile, and that such was the curvature as the line approached a certain place mentioned. Yet such conclusions were arrived at, notwithstanding they were each day bitterly contested, and although the evidence was of the most conflicting kind. A committee sat fifty-five days last session on a bill, which, having been then thrown out, was again introduced this year, and the committee sat for thirty-five days, making in the whole ninety days. The attendance in this instance has varied exceedingly. At first the numbers were twenty-four, then fourteen, then twelve, then ten; they then got up to twenty-six; and, on the twenty-eighth day, they rose from twenty-six to fifty-three, when, as all who are versed in such mysteries might expect, of course a division took place, and forty-six voted. What ensued? It might be fancied that the members were exhausted with the fatigue they had undergone in that division; for next day the attendance was only twenty-seven. The day after, however, it rose to forty-three; and on that day there were three divisions. Once more the numbers fell, and there were but twenty-two present; on the last day of all, however, there were forty-three, and the final decision

was come to, in which of course, many were present who had heard nothing; one, indeed, who could not have heard anything, or been in the room, for he was only elected a member to serve in Parliament the day before, and after the committee had been sitting for six or seven weeks. These things, be it remembered, are done, and habitually done, without any one feeling at all ashamed of them,—done, not in the dark, or by stealth and connivance, but openly, notoriously, and avowedly. They are parts of the system—a system long established; they are an inveterate and general practice; and my complaint is directed against that system and that practice, not against the individuals who conform to it, as others have long done before them. You do the same thing in this House, without constituents to instruct or importune you. I recollect a complaint which was made by a noble baron* two years ago. He stated,—nor did any one deny it,—that twelve noble lords had come down and divided upon a bill which was severely contested, and without having heard any part of the case on either side, the day of the decision being the first day of their attendance.

I am aware that your lordships may say,—as was, indeed, then said,—that those noble lords might have read the minutes. But need I remind you of the wide difference between reading a witness's evidence and hearing him give it, and seeing his demeanour under examination, to say nothing of the arguments upon the case, not a tittle of which is to be found in the minutes?

There may be various opinions upon the character and the extent of this mischief; men may differ in their judgment how far those act discreetly or correctly who make themselves parties to such proceedings; a like difference of opinion may prevail as to the fit remedy for the evil; and we may not even be agreed how far any remedy can be effectual. But there is one thing upon which, I will venture to say, there can be no difference of opinion at all, either within the walls of Parliament or without—either among the people at large, or among those who take a part in such transactions—no difference, I will assert, even among the members of that body which alone can be supposed to profit by the system, as it now exists and is administered,—I mean the profession I have the honour of belonging to. Throughout the whole country not the shadow of a shade of difference of opinion will be found upon the merits of that system; but all men, of all descriptions, will join with one voice,—and a loud voice it must soon become,—in reprobating and condemning the system, and in strenuously and imperatively demanding a change. How the proposition for getting rid of the evil may be shaped, is a more difficult question.

LORD MELBOURNE.—Hear, hear!

LORD BROUGHAM.—I grant it. But this is not, God knows, the only evil which it is easier, by a thousand times, to point out and complain of, than to cure! If that truism, to which my noble friend so readily assents, were a sufficient reason for not seeking a remedy,

* Lord Kenyon.

where would be all the improvements that, in so many other matters, we have attempted,—ay, and I may add, successfully accomplished? It is our duty to make the attempt, and only to cease seeking for a cure, when we find that, after all our efforts, the mischief is remediless. What I wish to press upon your lordships is, the necessity of instituting an inquiry, in order to ascertain whether the evil is past a cure or not. If the result of the investigation should be that no remedy can be found, we must be content, of necessity, with things as they are; but do not let your lordships be thus content by choice, and abandon all chance of, by obstructing all attempts at, improvement. For myself, I must say, that I do not think the case hopeless. I have considered various plans; and though I will not go so far as to assert that any one of them ought, without further examination, to be adopted, or even that a combination of the whole would safely and unobjectionably effect the important object which we have in view, I will, nevertheless, state one or two of them, for the consideration of the House.

In my opinion, some regulation is extremely desirable in both Houses of Parliament, for limiting the time of year in which private business is to be transacted. I would specify the period, and not allow it to be so extended as at present. I know that there are certain interests which would not be much benefited in this way,—certain interests for whose advancement it is better that the private business should be spread over a period of five or six months; but my belief is, that it would be, in itself, a great improvement, should we go no further than to confine the private business to a short specified period, and let it be understood that, after such a date,—allowing, say, four or six weeks,—private business should cease. But then that must be coupled with a cessation of other business, except such as is most urgent, during the time, and that involves what I know many of the members of both Houses are averse to, namely, a compulsory attendance to private business, as there is in the other House of Parliament to election committees. This proposition might be carried into effect, if we met at a reasonable time of the year,—if we did not persist in turning winter into summer, as well as night into day,—if, instead of meeting in the beginning of February, we chose to meet in the beginning of November, laying our account with being released in the month of May or the beginning of June. We might find, after the bad habits of late years, such an arrangement inconvenient at first; but my belief is, that, in a few sessions, we should marvel that we had so long deferred a course so easy and so advantageous. At all events, to meet earlier, to devote the first part of the session to private business, and so to get the remainder of the session for public business, would be, in my opinion, a great benefit.

An arrangement for getting rid of the private business in the morning is objected to by some, on the ground that such a plan would exclude professional men. My experience does not lead me to that conclusion. I find that sitting in the evening does not preclude the attendance of those professional men who have professional business

in the evening. In former times, as when Parliament sat at ten o'clock, and even earlier, in the morning, they had as many lawyers, and judges, and mercantile men, giving their attendance as of late years. My belief is, that, if the House of Commons sat in the course of the day instead of in the night—the impossibility of sitting both day and night has made it necessary for them to adjourn almost every night at twelve o'clock—if the private business were first disposed of, and they then undertook the public business, that would be found a much more convenient arrangement than the present.

I know that it may be said, this plan is merely speculative, and that we cannot hope to accommodate the established habits of life to such a change in the practice of Parliament. I am willing to admit that, as this question does not materially affect the motion with which I intend to conclude, it becomes me not now to waste your lordships' time by a minute discussion of its merits; but I will take the liberty of asking, in reference to the mode of conducting private business in both Houses, and the most crying of its evils, can there be any objection to laying the axe to the root of the tree? Is there any objection to taking such measures as shall prevent the expense and the endless delays of committees, and shall, at any rate, preclude the possibility of persons voting upon the most important questions without having heard a word of the case till the moment of deciding it? It may be said, that the standing orders respecting bills could be so enforced or so altered as to apply a remedy; and this I have heard ever since I had a seat in Parliament. Much, too, has been done in modifying those orders; and all the while, the mischief has gone on rather increasing than diminishing. I think an inquiry will show the necessity of some legislative provision.

Some have proposed that commissions should be sent to the places for which bills are introduced, instead of bringing up the parties and their witnesses to London, from all parts of the country. Why not let each House have its commission, it has been said, or both Houses join in having one, which shall examine surveyors, engineers, and other persons, on the spot; hear the parties or their counsel and agents, and report the facts of the case, in the manner of a special verdict; their report being conclusive of those facts, and the two Houses proceeding to legislate upon this finding? It is further said, that the evidence, as well as the conclusions, should be reported, and then it will be competent for the House—if not satisfied with those conclusions—to proceed and satisfy themselves. The consequence of this arrangement would be a second examination by the two Houses, because one party or the other would always object to the report; and thus the examination by the commission would be only so much additional expense and delay. If, again, the Houses are to be concluded by the finding of the commissioners, this is a delegation to them which can only be justified by such a choice in each case as shall make each commission deserve the entire confidence of Parliament. To this, great objections may be urged; and, as I consider the plan very inefficacious, I will not now stop to discuss them.

But what objection can there be to the appointment of a certain number, as a small committee of either House,—say nine, or rather seven or five,—to sit *de die in diem*, and no person be allowed to absent himself from any sitting, any more than members are permitted to absent themselves from election committees; that no vote shall be taken without the presence of those who have heard the evidence; and that no person shall be allowed to vote by whom all the evidence and arguments have not been heard? In some of the committees to which I have already adverted, there were members who appear to have the gift of ubiquity; for, according to the entries in the votes, they were attending three or four committees, all sitting on the same day and at the same time. The non-attendance of members when they should be there, at the hearing, and their attendance at the voting, when they ought to be present, is not the only evil now justly complained of. It is said that these committees come to conflicting decisions. The self-same point is sometimes decided opposite ways by different committees; and occasionally these conflicting decisions are come to by the same committee, composed of nearly the same individuals, the variance being the result of one or two members going out or coming in at the critical moment of the vote. Thus, in one of the cases to which I have already referred, on the Monday a resolution was passed by a very narrow majority, that certain evidence tendered should be rejected, and that it was, in the committee's opinion, sufficiently proved that the statements of the preamble were unfounded. On the Tuesday, however, some one had gone out and some one had come in; another resolution was then come to, not quite to be reconciled with the former; namely, that the evidence should be received, and upon its being examined, the committee now held that the preamble was proved, and reported in favour of the bill. Such things certainly lead to a suspicion that committees are governed by the balance of interests. But be this as it may, it appears that if it were no more than to secure an uniformity of decision on questions of law and of practice, a selection should be made from among the members of the House, or that it may be found expedient to obtain the aid of skilful individuals out of the House.

I cannot help here advertent to a measure framed by a committee of this House, and adopted by your lordships, about three years back, upon principles of the soundest kind. A bill having come from the other House, dealing with corruption in boroughs, that bill was found exceedingly unsatisfactory, though there was the greatest inclination to support it. A suggestion was, therefore, made by the noble duke on the benches opposite,* who did me the honour to ask my assistance in working it; and the proposition was held to be of so much importance that it was considered proper to refer the bill to a select committee. In the committee the matter was fully discussed; and the result was, that many clauses were thrown out, and many were introduced, and the bill was so essentially altered that it could not be considered the

* Duke of Wellington.

same measure. The bill having returned to the Commons, they came to the conclusion that it would be better to reject the amendments, because the effect of adopting them would be almost the same as if the House were to pass a bill by a single vote; and this bill, as altered, was too important a measure to be passed by the House of Commons without receiving, in the accustomed stages, the fullest consideration. It may therefore be said—not that the principle was negatived—but rather that the consideration of it was postponed. Now, what was the measure? It proposed one of the widest departures from ordinary rules,—one of the most unquestionable invasions of the privileges of Parliament I ever recollect, I will not say being carried, but propounded. It went to this: it appointed a tribunal, consisting of a judge and jury, the jury being selected from members of both Houses of Parliament. It proposed to take seven members of the House of Commons, and five of the House of Lords, who were to sit with the assistance and under the direction of one of the judges, not being a member of either House of Parliament; there was to be given a power of appeal to the other judges on questions of law; that jury, so composed of members of both Houses, was to find, as it were, a special verdict on the facts of the case; that verdict, being so returned to both Houses of Parliament, was to conclude them, not as to any bill or measure, but as to the facts only; and they were to proceed to legislate, if they chose, on the facts found by that special verdict. Why not adopt this plan as to private bills? Only see the advantage of this:—Here is one proceeding instead of two. Instead of both Houses sitting day by day, and from month to month, there would be one jury composed always of the same persons, who would sit *de die in diem*, and thus would be saved to the parties the delay, the expense, and the vexation which, in ninety-nine cases out of every hundred, accompanies private bills.

Various other plans have been suggested, on which I shall not dwell. Among these is one for withdrawing altogether these cases from the jurisdiction of both Houses of Parliament, and sending them before some other tribunal—the most effectual plan of all. There are many objections to such a plan; and I will admit that it is only to be thought of as a last resource, and when all other expedients are found to fail. But we have already made the experiment of transferring one branch of private legislation to a judicial tribunal. The bill of 1835, respecting patents, has been found fully to answer. It vests in the judicial committee of the privy council the granting of extensions of patents beyond the stated period of fourteen years, a power which could formerly only be exercised by the legislature. Thus, too, in the bill for constituting the judicial committee, as originally framed, a similar transfer was made of all divorce bills from Parliament to the privy council; and although, in deference to the suggestion of my noble friend near me, I withdrew that provision, it appeared to meet with no serious objection from your lordships, and was stated *only* to be postponed, not abandoned. I admit, however, that we are bound first of all to see what can be done by Parliament itself; and therefore

I trust all will allow that it is the imperative duty of the House to seek for a remedy as speedily as possible to the existing evils. I trust that the subject, having been thus brought forward, the House will not allow it to be put aside, either from negligence or from despairing of a cure. I am persuaded that if the committee be granted it will be able to devise something upon the principles of one or other of the plans which I have described. That these will afford the desired remedy, I have little doubt; that they will greatly mitigate, if not remove, the evil, I do not say I have a sanguine hope, but a confident expectation. I move your lordships, that a select committee be appointed to inquire and consider of the state of the business before this House of Parliament, and the mode of proceeding thereon.

The motion was agreed to, and a committee appointed, which, after sitting for some weeks, make the following report:—The House adopted the resolutions proposed; and they now form the rules which are to govern for the future the conduct of private business.

REPORT

ON THE BUSINESS OF THE HOUSE.

By the Lords Committees appointed a Select Committee to inquire and consider of the State of the Business of this House, and the mode of proceeding thereon; and to report to the House.

ORDERED TO REPORT,

That the Committee have met, and considered the matter to them referred, and have agreed to recommend to the House the following resolutions for regulating private business after this session:—

That no opposed private bill be referred to an Open Committee.

That every opposed private bill, not being an estate bill, be referred to a Select Committee of five, who shall choose their own chairman.

That every one of such committee of five do attend the proceedings of the committee during the whole continuance thereof.

That no Peer who is not one of the five do take any part in the proceedings of the committee.

That Lords be exempted from serving on the committee on any private bill wherein they shall have any interest.

That Lords be excused from serving for any special reasons to be approved of in each case by the House.

That the chairman of the committees, and four other Peers to be named by the House, be appointed a committee to select and propose to the House the names of the five Peers to form a select committee for the consideration of each such opposed private bill.

That the Select Committee of five be not named to the House on the same day on which the opposed private bill is read a second time.

That the committee to whom any such opposed private bill is committed shall meet not later than eleven o'clock every morning, and sit till four, and shall not adjourn at an earlier hour without specially reporting the cause of such adjournment to the House at its next meeting, nor adjourn over any days except Saturday and Sunday, Christmas day, and Good Friday, without leave of the House.

That if any member of such committee is prevented from continuing his attendance, the committee shall adjourn, and report the cause of such member's absenting himself to the House at its next meeting, and shall not resume its sittings without leave of the House.

That previous to the second reading of any private bill relating to railways, and any opposed private bill not being an estate bill, such bill shall be referred to the Standing Order Committee, before which the compliance with the standing orders relative to notices, to the depositing of plans and sections, and books of reference, lists and estimates, and to applications for the consent of the owners and occupiers of lands, and to any other matter which may be required by the standing orders to be done by the parties promoting such bill previous to the second reading of such bill, shall be proved.

MALTREATMENT

OF THE

NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

P R E F A C E

TO THE
SEPARATE EDITION OF THIS SPEECH.

It has been considered right by many of the friends of peace and of liberal policy, to publish this speech separately, chiefly in order that the attention of men may be directed to the important questions connected with the future lot of the North American Colonies, when the ferment excited by late unhappy events shall subside. The whole history of these transactions is calculated to throw light upon the inevitable mischiefs of extended colonial empire; and there is a farther argument of the same kind derivable from the unquestionable fact, that in even the Reformed Parliament the misgovernment of a remote and unrepresented province, has encountered but very little opposition from many of those who are always found most reluctant to suffer the least oppression if attempted upon any portion of the mother country.

The comments which this speech contains upon the conduct of the government have been complained of—as if Lord Brougham had some duty to perform of suppressing his opinions upon the most important questions that can occupy the attention of statesmen; and as if especially the colonial minister had a right to complain of strictures openly made, and in his presence, upon his public conduct.

It is, however, well known that Lord Brougham never showed any disposition to censure the present government until they adopted a course wholly at variance with his oftentimes recorded opinions. As long as he could support them, the history of Parliament shows that he rendered them every assistance in his power; nor did he ever while in office exert himself more, or spare himself less, than in their defence in 1835, and in carrying through the House of Lords the great measure of municipal reform.—In the summer of 1836, he refrained from all complaint when he saw his measures for preventing pluralities and nonresidence abandoned, and a bill introduced upon opposite principles.—In 1837, he continued to lend them support on all but one or two occasions, when it was impossible to approve their conduct—and on the Canada resolutions especially, last May, he was compelled to oppose them; a duty which he performed with manifest reluctance. He had during that session, 1837, expressed his opinions upon the necessity of altering the reform bill in essential particulars, and especially of extending the elective franchise. The present session was unhappily opened with a declaration on the part of the government as a body, that they took a view wholly different from that of most reformers; indeed, of the great body of the liberal party throughout the country. To this has been added their support of a policy by which the rights of

the subject are invaded, and the maintenance of peace itself put in jeopardy. They who complain of Lord Brougham—the ministers themselves are assuredly not of the number)—for adhering to his declared opinions, are respectfully requested to assign any reason why he should abandon his own principles—those which he has maintained, without the least deviation, throughout his whole life—merely that he may support the ministers who have most conscientiously, no doubt, though for the country most unfortunately, seen fit to adopt other views. Thus much as to the claims of the government at large, not only to form new opinions, and follow an altered course, but to carry along with them others whom their reasonings have wholly failed to convince.

Now, as to the Colonial Secretary, the party whose conduct is principally involved in the question of ministerial responsibility for the present state of the North American Provinces:—It is well known that Lord Brougham never showed any backwardness in coming down to his defence when he observed him unjustly attacked. No one can be better aware of this than the noble lord himself; with whom, however, it is understood that Lord Brougham never had any intercourse save that of an official nature while a member of the same government. But they who complain on the noble secretary's behalf, (he himself, assuredly, is not of the number,) are respectfully requested to assign any reason why full license having been always allowed him, and some of his principal colleagues, to form their own opinions—with them to oppose Parliamentary reform up to 1st March, 1831—to defend the Manchester massacre—to support the six acts—to remove Lord Fitzwilliam from office for attending a Parliamentary reform meeting at York—to oppose Lord Brougham's motion on the case of Smith the missionary—why, those noble persons having without any blame whatever been suffered formerly to hold such courses—and having, so happily for the country, and so honourably for themselves, adopted a different line of policy from Nov. 1830 to Nov. 1837, Lord Brougham alone should be complained of, for continuing since Nov. 1837 to abide by the very same principles which he had not taken up for the first time in Nov. 1830, but held in all former times? It is respectfully asked what right they who now complain of Lord Brougham for differing from the noble Secretary of State, have to expect that he should rather differ from his former self than from his former colleague; and while yet unable to partake of the convictions that have come over others, should abandon that devotion to the cause of freedom, and of peace, to which his public life had been consecrated?

The accident of members of a party feeling themselves under the necessity of opposing, upon some great occasion, those with whom it is their general wish to act, although unfortunate, is by no means unprecedented. When, in consequence of their friends being in office, almost all the whigs were found, during twelve months of the last war, to relax in their desire of peace, retrenchment, and reform, Mr. Whitbread—a name never to be pronounced without reverence and affection by Englishmen—alone opposed the measures of the administration, that he might adhere to his principles. In 1820, Lord Brougham declared in his place that he stood wholly aloof from his party, on all that related to the case of the late Queen, because there appeared a danger of her interests being, without any blame, sacrificed to other, possibly more important, considerations. There seems no good reason why he should not pursue the same course, when it is understood that he now very sincerely, though perhaps quite erroneously, believes a like sacrifice is made of principles, incomparably more important—the most sacred principles which used to bind the liberal party together; and when so many men are firmly persuaded that, but for the accident of the party being in office, they would have joined in pursuing the same course which Mr. Fox and Mr. Burke followed with such signal glory in the former American war.

It is probable, that Lord Brougham, in choosing to continue in that course, has had little fear of thereby impairing the strength of the present government.—That may be greater or it may be less; but there can be very little chance of any diminution befalling it, while its party supporters, be they more or less numerous, both in Parliament and in the country—more especially in many of the corporations—appear to be so firmly held together by the common principle which guides their conduct. That principle is one in some respects well grounded, and forms indeed the

foundation of all party connections. When not pushed too far, it is justifiable and it is useful. It teaches men to overlook minor differences of opinion, for the purpose of effecting common objects of superior importance; and warns them against the fatal error so well described by Mr. Fox, of giving up all to an enemy rather than anything to a friend. It is, however, equally manifest, that the abuse of this doctrine may lead to a justification of the very worst misconduct—may be used as a cover for the most sordid speculations of private interest—and may sap the foundation of all public principle whatever. It is to be hoped that the party zeal of those above referred to, may not lead them to such excesses. But for the present it does appear to have made the most grave questions of national polity—retrenchment—slavery—colonial rights—constitutional principle—peace itself—all sink into nothing compared with the single object of maintaining a particular class of men in power, and invested with the patronage of the Crown, as well as entrusted with the affairs of the empire.

S P E E C H

UPON

THE AFFAIRS OF CANADA.

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

JANUARY 18, 1838.

MY LORDS,—The part which I had the honour to bear last summer in this House, when the Commons sent up those ill-fated resolutions to which I trace the whole of the present disasters, impels me to present myself thus early, and to obtrude upon your lordships my sentiments regarding the important question before you. And, my lords, I wish that, in following my noble friend over the ground which he has just trodden, I could confine myself to the space he has travelled over, without trespassing upon other more delicate parts of it. But it never seems to have struck him that when a minister of the Crown comes to Parliament with a proposition, not merely such as the address contains, but such as we are warned is to follow swiftly upon the address—a demand of extraordinary aid for the executive government—measures of a high prerogative and unconstitutional kind—it never has struck him, that the minister who resorts to Parliament for the help of its extreme powers, in applying remedies of the last description—has something more to do than merely to ask for those remedies and show their necessity—that he has to explain whence the necessity arises; to defend the conduct which has led to this crisis in our affairs; to repel from himself and the ministry whereof he is parcel, the charge of having brought the colonial empire committed to his care into such a state, that we are assembled at this unwonted season for the purpose of quelling a rebellion in the principal settlement of the Crown, preventing, if we can, the recurrence of disaffection, and suspending the free constitution of the province, in order to secure its peace. Are these every-day occurrences? Are revolt and civil war of such an ordinary aspect that they pass over us like a summer's cloud and be regarded not? Are the demands of despotic power by the Crown, and the suspension of the whole liberties of the subject, mere matters of course in

the conduct of parliamentary business? Are such demands as these to be granted the instant they are made, without any question asked—without one word said upon the antecedent parts of the novel and portentous case—without any attempt whatever to explain or to defend the maladministration which has terminated in the necessity of those demands—without even one allusion to the obvious questions—who caused this disastrous state of things?—whose fault is it that such powers are become requisite?—whose misconduct caused the rebellion to burst forth?—whose neglect of all timely precautions fostered discontent till it ripened into disaffection?—whose impolitic counsels first stirred up that discord?—and whose misapplication of the national resources fanned the disaffection into a flame? Yet, strange to tell! looking from the beginning to the end of my noble friend's statement, distinct and lucid as it was, to this hour I cannot descry one explanation offered—one justification attempted—one position taken or defended with the design of protecting himself against the charges which have rung all over the country for weeks, from one end of it to the other, and all pointed against him and his colleagues in the service of the Crown! But, my lords, I cannot so consent to abandon my duty, as to pass this matter thus over. I feel myself bound to enter upon the subject of these charges at once. I cannot follow the colonial minister in the course which he has found it convenient to take of flying away from the real matter in discussion, or allow him to claim the extraordinary and unconstitutional powers which he asks, as if he were discharging some common duty of mere official routine—moving for yearly returns—laying sessional papers before the House—or calling for a vote to supply the yearly expenses of his department in the ordinary circumstances of tranquil times. There was, indeed, one remark made by him that might seem an exception to the account I have given of his speech. He attempted some defence against the great and leading accusation of having sent over the offensive resolutions, and providing no force to support them. But I shall presently show your lordships that the explanation he gave made his case much worse, and that he left the charge more grave and formidable, if possible, than he found it.

I will now come to the course of his proceedings at large, and first of all to the interval alluded to by the noble baron opposite* when we last met—the period which elapsed between the despatch of the 20th of November 1836, promising instructions to the governor of Canada, and the 11th of March 1837, the date of the next despatch. It is not true, says the noble lord, that near four months elapsed between the promise and the non-performance, (for the despatch of March gives no instructions;) a small interval only occurred; a letter was written about the middle of February, but it was private, and cannot regularly be produced or even alluded to, says the noble lord. A shorter production than that of March—shorter in point of physical dimensions, for one falling shorter of its purpose there could assuredly not be—but mathematically smaller.—

* Lord Ellenborough.

LORD GLENELG.—I beg pardon; I did not say a shorter despatch.

LORD BROUGHAM.—Really then, I must say, this is the most extraordinary mode of selecting papers for the information of the Parliament, or the exculpation of the ministers, that in my whole life I ever heard of. The despatch of March, which is of no value whatever, which tells absolutely nothing, is produced. The despatch of July, which may be of some value, and may tell something, (I cannot know that it does, till I see it) is withheld. Why is it not here with the other? My noble friend affirms, that it has something in it; at any rate that it is long; and he is exceeding wroth with me for curtailing it of its fair proportions. Anxious, like a good parent for the credit of his offspring, he extols its size, without however letting his natural partiality carry him the length of asserting that its value is in proportion to its bulk. Nevertheless, I will, if he pleases, assume it to be so. I will suppose that instead of containing nothing, like its predecessor of November and its successor of March, and indeed, that long train of phantom letters which followed each other, "stretching out to the crack of doom," it really told the provincial governor something of the intentions of the ministry, something of the course he was to pursue;—then, I ask, why we have it not produced, that we too may know what that something was which was thus conveyed across the Atlantic at a critical moment a year ago? Why are we not to see that which tells something, and only that which tells nothing at all? That is my question; a simple one, and I should think easily to be answered; and if my noble friend will give it an answer, I shall readily pause in order to be spared the necessity of dwelling longer on this point of debate, willing enough, God knows, where there remain so many others which it is impossible to pass over, that I should be spared the task of dealing with any one which is superfluous. The mysterious description of this letter, is to me incomprehensible, as given by my noble friend. It was a private one. But what can that signify? Whether a despatch begins my lord, or my dear lord, and ends with "the honour to be," or with "Yours truly,"—I had always thought made no kind of difference in its nature, provided the matter of it was public business. The test of production is, is the letter relating or not to the affairs on which the Parliament has been convoked, and the sovereign is to be addressed? Nor did I ever yet hear of any minister refusing to produce a paper, whatever its form might be, which bore that relation, unless indeed he had his own reasons for suppressing it. But to refuse it on the pretence of its being private, and yet to use it as a proof that the promise of November was fulfilled in February, while the only papers produced show that it was never fulfilled at all, is one of the most extravagant draughts ever made upon the unsuspecting confidence of Parliament.

It is on the 20th of November, then, that a promise of ample instructions is given to the governor. The next despatch produced, is on the 11th of March; when instead of fulfilling the promise, now four months old, new promises are made, new hopes of instructions held out, to be realized as soon as the decision of Parliament shall be

pronounced upon the case. The promissory letter of November, and the promissory note of February, are as it were, renewed, but at an uncertain date. When was the decision of Parliament asked? As early as the 6th of March, and after passing some of the principal resolutions, including indeed the most material of the whole, that refusing an elective council, the Easter recess comes to the relief of the colonial department, and Parliament is adjourned. But it meets again on the 6th of April, and assuredly neither before nor after the vacation does it testify any great reluctance to comply with the ministerial desires. From all parts of the country the members flock to their support against the hapless province which has been denounced. From all parts of the empire the Parliamentary host assembles. Does there appear in any quarter a disposition to be over-nice about the votes given—over scrupulous as to the principles asserted? Do any of the ministerial supporters, of that staunch and trusty band to whom the government is indebted for its majority, betray any squeamishness what measures they shall sanction—what votes they shall give? Is any wish betokened to scrutinize very narrowly the plans or the propositions of the cabinet before they declare them unexceptionable? On the contrary, so the ministers leave the corners of the sister kingdom untouched, and administer its more practical affairs to the taste of its representatives—there is no inclination whatever evinced to make any kind of difficulty about any kind of measure—how violent soever, how coercive soever,—that may be propounded for quelling the spirit and completing the misgovernment of any other portion of the whole empire. I confess myself then quite unable to comprehend why all this delay of the necessary orders should be made to turn upon the affected ignorance of what course Parliament was likely to take upon resolutions which were sure to be carried through the one House by unexampled majorities—through the other with scarce a single dissentient voice. Yet still not a word is wafted across the ocean more substantial for the guidance of the unhappy governor, than empty promises of orders—notice that some instructions will hereafter be sped towards him. This system, I own, puzzles me not a little. I can well understand the use of notices where there is to be debate and resistance to your propositions. When a question is to arise upon what you propose, that its merits may be discussed, and that its adversaries may be warned to attend the controversy, I can easily conceive the use of giving them intimation; though even such intimations as the despatches give, specifying no time at all, would be of no great avail. But what sense can there be in giving your servant a general notice of orders to be afterwards issued, when all he has to do must be, not to debate but to obey? Does he require notice in order to make up his mind to comply? Or is he called upon to consider in the interval, whether he shall resist or do as he is bid? And yet the noble lord's despatches are stuffed so full of mere notices, that I know of nothing in this respect at all equal to them unless it be the order book of the other House of Parliament on the first day of a session after a general election! The notice

however being given and the promise made in November, in the fulness of time, at the end of April, comes the expected despatch; a six months' child is brought forth,—it makes a cry,—struggles for life—and is heard no more. I defy the wit of man to suggest the purpose of the November despatch, or of the March one, which, instead of instruction, conveys merely a report of the divisions in the Commons, as the newspapers would have done with equal, and the original document, the votes, with greater authority; but still less can any one divine the purpose for which the despatch of April was called into a premature and precarious existence; for instead of redeeming the oftentimes repeated pledge by letting the government know what he was to do, it merely brings down the report of the divisions, and adds carefully the yet more useless information of the lists of the members' names. The resolutions, says my noble friend, have all been passed by large majorities, and I enclose, "for your lordship's information, extracts from the proceedings of the House, containing a statement of the several divisions which have taken place on this subject since I last addressed you." Then as to the introduction of the bill itself, that it seems "must be postponed till after the opinion of the House of Lords shall have been taken;" about which there seems to be entertained some doubt, to me, I confess, rather unintelligible, considering that but one voice was at all likely to be raised in this place against any of the resolutions. But the noble lord adds, "I have every reason to anticipate that the bill will be submitted to Parliament within a very short period," and this was written on the 29th of April. Then come promises in abundance. "So soon," says my noble friend, "as the resolutions shall have been disposed of by the House of Lords, I shall address to your lordship full instructions on the steps which should be adopted under existing circumstances, especially with reference to the composition of both the legislative and executive councils. Your lordship may rely on receiving them in ample time, to enable you to prepare for the meeting of the legislature." Did he rely on receiving them in time? I know not—but if he did, he was grievously deceived. I shall presently show your lordships that he did not receive them till long after the Parliament had met and been prorogued, and I shall demonstrate, that most fatal effects were produced by these instructions not arriving. After adverting to the time of the colonial legislature meeting, and stating that the governor was the best judge of this, the despatch goes on to say:—"I shall, however, distinctly advert to this point in connection with the other matters on which I shall have to address your lordship, and I only refer to it now that you may be aware it will not be overlooked." Really, I can hardly admit that this would be the necessary effect on the governor's mind of such a reference; so many things had been so often referred to, all of which had in succession been entirely overlooked, that I am rather apprehensive, the reference to this question (which, by the way, it is admitted Lord Gosford alone could decide,) frustrated its own object, and was fitted to make him expect that this point of future instruction would be overlooked like

all its predecessors. But another reason is given for the prospective reference—"and in order that your own attention may be directed to it in the meantime." To it? "To what," exclaims the governor, "for as yet you have told me nothing. How shall I direct my attention, in the mean time, to that of which you withhold from me all knowledge?" The thing seems incredible, and we must keep the eye steadily fixed upon the original document lest unbelief get the mastery of us. "With a view," the despatch proceeds,—for there was a view with which Lord Gosford was to keep his attention fixed upon an unknown instruction, to arrive at an uncertain time, he was to ponder upon the question of the time of meeting Parliament, which he alone could solve, directing his attention to the instructions on that subject, to be sent by those who could form no judgment upon it, and in utter ignorance of the purport of those instructions on which he was to be all the while reflecting. And what think you, my lords, was this view with which he was to attend and reflect? What was the reason why his attention should be fixed upon nothing, why his eyes should be directed to glare upon darkness or vacant space? "With the view," concludes this unparalleled letter, "to the sound exercise of that discretion"—some faint semblance there is here, the approach, at least, of some definite matter—but it vanishes instantly like all the rest—"that discretion which it may probably be expedient to leave in your lordship's hands, with regard to it!" So the governor is informed that at some future, but uncertain time, he shall be told something of importance which is carefully concealed from him; the reason, however, is given for warning him that he may expect it, namely, that he may be enabled to occupy the awful interval between reading what tells him nothing, and receiving what is to tell him he knows not what, in making up his mind how he shall act in unknown circumstances, upon undisclosed instructions, and exercise "a sound discretion" upon the undiscovered matter, there being a grave doubt intimated in the same breath, whether or not any discretion at all may ever "be left in his hands." To such orders was Lord Gosford's conduct subject; by such instructions was he to be guided; in such circumstances, and leading to such results, was his discretion to be exercised. My lords, let us in justice towards an absent man—let us in fairness towards one, who, because he is absent, is by the common proverb so little creditable to human candour, assumed to be in the wrong—pause for a moment, to consider whether one so situated and so treated, even if his conduct had been the most defective, and had the least satisfied his superiors, would justly have been visited with blame, or at least, let us say whether the blame must not have been largely shared by his employers? Mark, I beseech you, in what position he is left. Sent to the advance posts of the empire—at a distance from the seat of government—far removed from the wisdom, the vigour, the resources of those councils which rule our affairs—unprovided with any but the ordinary force of the colony, the force adapted to peaceful times; and with this inadequate force appointed to meet a crisis brought on by his employers, a crisis unparalleled in

the affairs of the province—mark, I say, the helpless position of this noble person, so unaided by adequate resources, so surrounded by extreme perils, and instead of being instructed how he is to act, told by those who first planted him there, then surrounded him with danger, and at the same time refused him help to meet it, that at a future day he shall be informed how he is to comport himself; that for the present he is to know nothing; and that he may be making up his mind by guess work how he shall act when he may be told what he shall do! But, my lords! I say it is not Lord Gosford only, whose situation you are to mark and to compassionate—Look to the provinces committed to his care! If you will have dominions in every clime; if you will rule subjects by millions on the opposite sides of this globe; if you will undertake to administer a government that stretches itself over both hemispheres, and boast an empire on which the sun never sets—it is well. Whether this desire be prudent or impolitic for yourselves, I ask not—whether its fruits be auspicious or baneful to our own interests—I stop not to inquire; nor do I raise the question, whether to the distant millions over whom you thus assume dominion, this mighty and remote sceptre be a blessing or a curse. But of one thing I am absolutely certain; at all events this resolution to have so vast an empire imposes upon you the paramount duty of wakefulness over its concerns—it prescribes the condition that you shall be alive to its administration—vigilant at all times—that you shall not slumber over it, neither sleep, nor like the slug-gard fold the hands to sleep, as if your orders were issued to a district, each corner of which the eye could each moment command—or a kingdom, the communication with all parts of which is open every day and every hour, and where all the orders you may issue, are to be executed in the self-same circumstances in which they were conceived and were framed. That is the condition upon which such mighty empires must be holden—that is the difficulty which exists in the tenure; hard to grapple with—perilous to be possessed of—not wholesome it may be, either for the colony or the parent state, should they long remain knit together—but at all events the condition, *sine quâ non*, of having to administer such arduous concerns.

But let us, my lords, resume the history of these transactions. The resolutions were introduced and in part were adopted by the commons, on the 6th of March. Parliament having reassembled on the 6th of April, they were not brought before your lordships, till the 9th of May, when you passed them with only my dissenting voice. Now both Lord Gosford and the Parliament had been assured that the resolutions should be followed up by immediate action, as indeed the plainest dictates of all sound policy required, and that the bill to make them operative should be introduced without delay. Was it so? Was anything like this done? No. Nothing of the kind. Day after day passed; week after week glided away; and up to the middle of June, when the lamented illness of the Sovereign ended in a demise of the Crown, no one step had been taken to convert the resolutions into a legislative measure. Yet did any man living doubt what the

inevitable effect of these resolutions must be? They were not conciliatory; they were anything but conciliatory. They were coercive, they meant refusal, they meant repression, or they meant nothing. They imported a repulsive denial of the Canadian's prayers—a peremptory negative to his long pressed claims—an inexorable refusal of his dearly cherished desires. This might be quite right and necessary. I don't now argue that question—but at any rate it was harsh and repulsive. Nor was there the least accompaniment of kindness, the smallest infusion of tenderness, to sweeten the cup which we commended to his lips. His anxious wish was for an elective council. This was strongly, unequivocally, universally expressed. Far from relaxing, the feeling had grown more intense; far from losing influence, it had spread more widely year by year. Instead of being expressed by majorities in the assembly, of two to one, of the people there represented, after the last dissolution that had increased in the proportion of fourteen to one, the representatives of 477,000 against those of 34,000 only. Never let this fact for an instant pass from the recollection of your lordships—it lies at the root of the whole argument, and should govern our judgment on every part of the case. It is a fact, which cannot be denied, and it indicates a posture of affairs which all attempts to change must be vain. How were the resolutions formed to meet this state of the public mind? How did the Parliament, the reformed Parliament of England, meet the all but unanimous prayer of the Canadian people? By an unanimous vote of this House, by a majority in the other, nearly as great as that which in the Provincial Parliament supported the improvement so anxiously solicited, the people of Canada were told that they had no hope, and that from the parent state they never would obtain the dearest object of all their wishes. But was there on the other hand no tenderness displayed to soften the harshness of the refusal—no boon offered to mitigate the harsh, the repulsive, the vexatious act of turning to their prayers a deaf ear, and putting an extinguisher on all their hopes? There was. You had given them in 1831 the power of the purse; had told them that they should no longer have to complain of possessing the British constitution in name, while in substance they had it not; had “kindly and cordially,” such were your words, conferred on them a privilege that should place them on the self-same footing with the British Parliament, secure to them the substantial power of granting, postponing, or refusing supplies, instead of the mere shadow of a free constitution, which they had before been mocked with. You had told them that in future the means were theirs of protecting their rights from encroachment; that they could thenceforth enforce their claims of right; that they could insist upon redress of their grievances by withholding supplies, while the redress was refused. But what do you offer them in 1837, by way of sweetening the bitter refusal of their prayer for an elective council? You absolutely mingle with this nauseous potion, not a repeal of the act of 1831, but a declaration that for using its provisions—for exercising the option it gave of refusing supplies—for employing the

powers it conferred, in the very way in which you intended, or at least professed to intend they should be employed, to enforce a redress of grievances,—you would set the act and all its provisions at naught, appropriate their money without their consent, and seize their chest by main force, in spite of their teeth, because they had done what you took credit six years ago for giving them the right to do—withheld their money until they had obtained redress! Such were the resolutions; such their import and intention. I am not now arguing their merits. I am not about proving their monstrous cruelty—their outrageous injustice. But I ask if any human being ever existed in this whole world moon-stricken to the excess of doubting for one instant of time, what must be the effect of their arrival in Canada? Some there may be who viewed them with a more favourable eye than others; some who deemed them justifiable, some even necessary; while others abhorred them as tyrannical and without the shadow of justification; some again might apprehend a more instantaneous revolt to be risked by them than others dreaded, and some might differ as to the extent and the efficacy of that commotion; but where was the man of any class, whether among the authors of the resolutions, and their supporters, or their enemies, or the by-standers, among these of liberal principles who were struck with dismay at the shame in which their leaders were wrapt, or among those of opposite opinions who exulted to see the liberal cause disgraced and ruined—where, I demand, among them all was the man endued with understanding enough to make his opinion worth the trouble of asking for it, who ever doubted that the arrival of these detested resolutions in Canada must be the signal of revolt, at least the immediate cause of wide-spreading discontent and disaffection throughout the province? The event speedily justified this universal apprehension. I might appeal to the ordinary channels of information; the public papers of America as well as of Canada; to what formed the topic of conversation in every political circle, both of the old world and the new; but I will only refer you to these papers, meagre and imperfect as they are; for they contain abundant proofs of the fact which I state; and in the face of these disclosures, reluctant and scanty though they be, I will defy my noble friends to gainsay the statement I have made.

I may here observe, that as several of the despatches give so little information that they might without any detriment to the question have been withheld, so some have manifestly been kept back, of which the government are unquestionably possessed, and which would throw light upon this part of the subject; although those produced give us plain indications of what has been suppressed. Thus the despatches of the 2d, 8th, and 9th of September show to an attentive reader, as strikingly as anything in the late deplorable Gazettes themselves, the progress of that discontent which has been suffered to break out into rebellion. In the first, Lord Gosford states that he thinks it may become necessary to suspend the constitution—not an indication, surely, of things being in a satisfactory or a tranquil state. In the last of the three letters, he says, “up to this day (not at once, but in a course of

time,) he has been obliged to dismiss fifty-three magistrates and public officers;" and for what? The magistrates for attending unlawful meetings, and the officers for seditious practices. What state of things does this betoken? And how plainly does it show that the evil was not of yesterday? Manifestly the dismissals had been going on for a time, and notice of them had been communicated to the government at home; but how happens it that no other intimation is given of so grave a matter except in this one despatch? Then in the letter of the 8th September, Lord Gosford describes a central committee as having been formed by the disaffected, from which orders were issued to what he calls "*the Local Committees.*" The local committees! Yet we find no mention whatever of any local committees in any of the other letters produced for our information! The use of the definite article plainly shows that the governor had in some previous despatch described those bodies to which he here refers without any description. When in the same sentence, he speaks of the central committee—evidently for the first time—he calls it "*a Central Committee,*" and explains its nature. Clearly, then, there has been received some other letter, whether long or short, private and informal, or regular and official, informing the government of the ominous circumstance, here only alluded to as already well known, of local committees having been established throughout the province. But that other letter is kept back. The information which the supposed despatch would disclose is not new to me, and it is of deep importance. It points at an organized system of insurrection, and it traces the system to the arrival of the resolutions in Canada. In each parish, parochial committees were formed; in each district, district committees; and these local bodies were under the orders of the central committee. But a judicial system was also established: In each place there were appointed arbitrators, called *amiables compositeurs*, or pacificators, to whom it was required that all having suits should resort, and not to the King's courts of justice; or if any party preferred the latter, he was visited by some one who warned him that the Patriots had passed resolutions against suing in the courts of the state; his cattle were marked in the night if he persevered; and a further contumacy towards the courts of the arbitrators was visited with a maiming of his beasts the night after. This system was established and in operation as early as the beginning of September. But there are some plans which cannot be the work of a day, and of these a judicial establishment like this is surely one. We may safely calculate that months had elapsed before the things stated respecting it in these papers could exist. But I know that the plan was not confined to such committees of government, and such irregular tribunals. Men were raised, as was said, for the purposes of police; as I believe, to be ready for resisting the government. The pretext was the removal of so many magistrates from the commission of the peace. So that we have here all the great functions of government usurped by the disaffected;—executive administration provided, judicial tribunals formed, and a military force levied;—and all usurped under the very eye of the government. Why do I ascribe all these

frightful results to the resolutions? My reason is plain—it is in these despatches. Lord Gosford himself tells you what their effect was, particularly that of the eighth, respecting the money; they who were most attached to the government, who most reprobated the proceedings of the Patriots, who least favoured the French party, were loud in their disapprobation of that eighth resolution. I do not marvel at this, my lords; to me it is no surprise at all; I expected it. I contended against the resolutions; I protested against them; I earnestly, though humbly, besought you not to plunge the country into that civil contention which I saw was inevitable the moment that eighth resolution should pass. To injury of the deepest character, it added what is worse than all injury, mockery and insult. To tell men that you gave them the British constitution, and to brag of your bounty in giving it;—to tell them that they no longer had it in form, but that now you generously bestowed on them the substance; to tell them that they now possessed the same control over the executive government which we in England have, and which is the corner-stone of our free constitution;—to tell them that you gave them the power of stopping supplies, for the purpose of arming them with the means of protecting their rights from the encroachments of tyranny, and of obtaining a redress of all grievances;—bragging of your liberality in thus enabling them to seek and to get, by these means, that redress;—and then, the very first time they use the power so given, for the very purpose for which you gave it, to leave them nominally in possession of it, to pass by it, to disregard it, to act as if you never had given it at all, and to seize hold of the money, to send a file of soldiers and pillage the chest of that fund which you pretended you had given them, and them alone, the absolute power over—this surely is a mockery and an insult, in the outrageous nature of which, the injury itself offered merges and is lost. But I am not now arguing the merits of these ill-fated proceedings. Let them have been ever so justifiable, I have nothing to say against them. They were adopted by the wisdom of Parliament, and it is too late to discuss—it is unavailing to lament it; but this at least we may say, that when such a course as this was taken, known beforehand to the government, to its advisers who could not be taken unprepared by it—who had been deliberating on it from the 20th November 1836, to the unknown date of the suppressed despatch in July, and thence to that of the next not very instructive but at least forthcoming despatch of April 29—the ministers were aware of the measure they had conceived—they knew its tendency—they must have made up their mind to its effects—they had resolved to inflict the grievous injury and offer the intolerable insult yet worse than the injury. Was there ever yet imbecility—was there ever confusion or want of ideas—ever yet inexplicable policy, (if I might prostitute such a name to such a base use,)—was ever there seen in the history of human blunders and incapacity anything to match this, of wronging and mocking and insulting, and yet taking no one step by way of precaution against the inevitable effect of the outrage offered, and to prevent the disaffection into which you were

goading them from bursting out into revolt, and the revolt from proving successful? The Canadian people are told—you shall be defeated, and oppressed, and scorned, and insulted, and goaded to resent, but care shall all the while be taken that nothing is done to prevent the irritation we are causing from bringing on rebellion; and should rebellion peradventure ensue, no means shall be used to prevent the shedding of blood—to protect the loyal and restrain the insurgent. My lords, there have been before now at various times, men inclined to play a tyrant's part; to oppress the unoffending, to trample upon the liberties of mankind; men who had made up their minds to outrage the feelings of human nature for some foul purpose of their own, aggravating the wrongs they did, and exasperating the hatred they deliberately excited, by insults yet more hard to be borne. These courses have had different fortunes—sometimes the oppressor has prevailed—sometimes he has been withstood, and punished by the people. But I will venture to assert that this is the first time such a course ever was pursued without some foresight, some precaution to enforce the policy resolved on—some means provided to preclude resistance, and at least to guard against its effects. Tyranny and oppression has here appeared stript of its instinctive apprehension and habitual circumspection. Compared with the conduct which we are now called to contemplate, the most vacillating and imbecile, the most inconsistent and impotent rulers, rise into some station commanding respect;—King John, or Richard Cromwell himself rises into a wise, a politic and vigorous prince.

But it is said that there were various reasons why these resolutions should not be accompanied with an effective force. And first, because the event has shown that there were troops enough already in the colony to quell the revolt. I hope it is already put down—I do not know that it is; but assume it to be so, does not my noble friend see how much this proves? The defence, if it means anything means this—that the ordinary peace establishment of Canada is quite large enough to meet the most extraordinary emergencies that ever yet happened in its whole history. How then will he meet these economists of our resources—those who are so niggardly and frugal of the public money, and justly complain of every pound needlessly spent and every man not absolutely required for the defence of the provinces? Because if it turns out that you had in times of profound peace so large a force in the colony, as was enough to meet a most unexpected crisis, and to cope successfully with a civil war, how is the question to be answered,—“Why an army should be wanted in peace, equal to the establishment which a war requires?” Had such a question been put on any other occasion than the present, I well know the answer it would have received, because I have heard it again and again, both while in office and while out of office. The answer would assuredly have been: We keep only just force enough to meet the ordinary demands of tranquil times. Yet according to the extraordinary defence set up this night, there never are fewer troops maintained in Canada, than are sufficient to meet demands of the most unexpected kind.

There may a civil war any moment break out, and the government may occasion and may quell an universal insurrection, without despatching an additional man or gun thither. The establishment is so happily constituted as not to be too great for peace, and also not too little for war. But a second argument has been used more startling still. My noble friend tells you that to send more men over would have had a very bad effect, because it would be admitting the resolutions were wrong, and showing we anticipated a resistance. Why, my lords, is it not better to anticipate a resistance, and thereby prevent it, than to do nothing and be surprised by one? Which is the worst and most dangerous course, to be over cautious, or too supine? Is not the reality of a successful revolt infinitely more hurtful than the appearance of dreading one which may never break out? Is not a revolt far more likely to happen, and if it happen to succeed, if you omit the ordinary and natural precautions? And suppose these prevent its happening, what the worse are you for having it said, and said unjustly too, that you were apprehensive without cause?

But then a third defence is attempted. Sending troops, says my noble friend, would have been paying a bad compliment to the loyal zeal of the Canadians; it would have been treating them as if we could not sufficiently rely on them alone. Now I should not much wonder if these peaceable inhabitants of the province, however loyal, and however devoted, were to say, when they found themselves, through this extreme delicacy, exposed unprotected to civil war, "A truce with your compliments; send us some troops. Don't laud our zeal and loyalty at the expense of our security. Don't punish us for our good qualities. Give us less praise and more protection. Never heed the imputation you may expose us to by sending out effectual succour to those who are not military men, so that you only secure the settlement against the worst of calamities, the flames of civil war, and, should they break out, their laying waste our province." Surely, my lords, those peaceful and loyal subjects of the Crown are sorely aggrieved when you tell them that their settlement may be involved in agitation and torn by civil broils, but that still no protecting hand shall be stretched forth to stay their ruin,—that you abandon your duty towards them—the duty of protection which alone gives you a title to the reciprocal duty of allegiance; and as surely they are mocked beside being aggrieved, when, in excuse for thus deserting your duty towards them, they are told, that were you to discharge it, you might appear to doubt their loyalty and their zeal. My lords, this is not, it cannot be a real defence: it is an after thought. I am sorry to say that I cannot bring myself to regard it as sincere, and but for the respect I owe my noble friend I could not bring myself to regard it as an honest defence. If any man had asked him six months ago, before the event, why no troops had been sent to back the odious resolutions and render resistance hopeless, he might have given various answers to a very pertinent question. I cannot indeed easily divine what he would have urged in explanation; but of one thing I am quite certain—I can tell at once what he would not have urged—he never would have

uttered a word about the despatch of troops indicating a distrust of Canadian loyalty or a condemnation of the eighth resolution. All this is a mere ingenious expedient resorted to after the event, and it is not, permit me to say, characterized by the accustomed candour, fairness, and ingenuousness of the noble lord.

Well, then, thus matters went on, and thus to the very last with admirable consistency. No instructions, either as to the legislative or executive council reached Canada before the Parliament of the province met, although it had been distinctly promised that they should arrive before the meeting, as indeed after it they could serve no kind of purpose. Nay, the Parliament had met and been prorogued before they were even despatched from Downing Street. I am aware indeed of the despatches which bear the date of July 14, a day remarkable in the calendar of the colonial office for unwonted activity—no less than four of these despatches being all dated upon that singular day—and I know that one of these appears to contain a good deal about the constitution of the legislative council, but when you examine it you find nothing more than a long, a very long extract from the report of the commissioners—so long as to require an apology in my noble friend's letter for the length of the quotation. It seems that on this matter the three commissioners had agreed. Their general course of proceeding had been to differ upon everything—so that each reason assigned by the one found a satisfactory refutation in the arguments urged by his able and ingenious colleagues. Nevertheless they had an odd manner of often coming to the same conclusion, not only by different roads, but by travelling in diametrically opposite directions, as if to reach York they took not the Hull road or the Grantham road, but the road by Exeter or by Brighton. However, in this paper they had for a wonder all agreed; therefore my noble friend catches at it, and for the edification of the governor sends him nearly the whole of it in the form of a despatch, without adding one word of advice or information as to how the governor should proceed in carrying the propositions into effect, or constructing his council—the whole practical matter being what men he should put upon it. The noble governor was now surrounded by disaffection, and sitting upon the collected materials of an explosion; he was ruling a province on the brink of civil war, and without supplies of force, or a word of information or advice from home. So my noble friend sends him a long quotation from the report of the commissioners, a precaution the less necessary that the noble lord himself, being one of those commissioners, had himself signed that report, and might, one should suppose, very possibly be possessed of some knowledge of its contents. Nay, it was barely possible that he might have a copy of the document at large. So careful however was the noble secretary of state, that he thought it better to send him a part of it, as he was pretty certainly already in possession of the whole. Nothing more is done till August 22, when at length a despatch is forwarded, with full instructions as to the composition of the council. The despatches before sent had contained only a very partial and entirely provisional power of appointment.

But the difference between the two dates is in fact quite immaterial; for if all that was sent in August, had been sent in July, it was too late—the Parliament met on the 18th of August, and unless the powers had arrived before that day, they were absolutely useless; not to mention that a proclamation issued in June shows the colony to have been then on the verge of rebellion. The provincial parliament met—nothing but the resolutions was laid before them—nothing but refusal and coercion, disappointment and mockery, were tendered to them, without a single proposition to soften the harshness of the refusal, or mitigate the bitterness of the insult. The provinces were now arrayed in opposition, and preparing resistance to the government,—an extensive system of combination was established,—civil, judicial, and military powers were exercised by the patriots. It was now too late to soothe, by the appointment of councillors, whose names, a few weeks earlier, might have given confidence to the people, and paved the way for a restoration of kindly feelings towards the government; they had already gotten the local committees,—their central body—their *amiables compositeurs*, their police-bands.—On the one hand, hope had been held out never to be realized—promises made only to be broken. On the other hand, resolutions of coercion had been passed amounting to hateful threats, to be followed immediately by bills, but these were never so much as proposed to Parliament. The insurrection breaks out—blood is spilt—the province is involved in rebellion and in war—still no legislative measures are ever framed upon the resolutions. Parliament assembles weeks after the most important information has come from the colony,—still not a word is said of anything but the new civil list; and instead of the often promised bill to carry the resolutions of April and May into effect, an entirely new bill is announced, upon a wholly different plan, and to meet the completely altered state of affairs.

Now, then, I ask the reason why the measure was delayed, after being distinctly promised in April? The government are aware that this question must be answered, and I find several reasons assigned in these papers. The first is given in one of the four despatches of July 14: "Much as the government have always lamented the necessity of adopting such a measure under any circumstances, they would, at the present moment, feel a peculiar reluctance in resorting to it, as they would deeply regret that one of the first legislative acts of her most gracious Majesty's reign, should carry even the semblance of an ungracious spirit towards the representatives of her loyal and faithful subjects in that province." If, then, "even the semblance of an ungracious spirit towards the loyal and faithful subjects," is so "deeply regretted" by my noble friend, what thinks he of the reality of an audacious spirit of resistance to the Sovereign herself? Does he not consider that it would have been quite as well to avoid such empty, unmeaning compliments to his sovereign, and discharge the imperative duty cast upon him, of maintaining her authority, and protecting her loyal people? Would it not have been full as respectful a course, and to his royal mistress just as grateful, if instead of such tawdry and

clumsy figures of speech, he had given her the opportunity of maintaining the peace of her dominions, by pursuing the course begun under her illustrious predecessor? My noble friend speaks of "deep regret,"—was it then a subject of much satisfaction to him that weakness and indecision, delay and inaction, should lead from dissatisfaction to revolt, and end in shedding the blood of the people? Are these things no matter of regret, when deep regret is expressed at merely continuing in the new reign the measures resolved upon towards the end of the old? The rose leaves on the royal couch of the young queen must not, it seems, be ruffled by the discharge of painful, though necessary duties.—But then was the death-bed of the aged monarch to be studded with thorns? If the mind of the successor must not be disturbed with the more painful cares of royalty, was the dying prince to have his last moments harassed and vexed by measures of a severe and harsh aspect? Such, I presume, is the reason assigned for nothing having been done after the resolutions were passed in the beginning of May. My lords, this is a delicate—a perilous argument. We are here treading slippery ground—we are dealing with very high matters. I affirm that I speak the language of the constitution when I absolutely refuse my ear to all such reasons. They are resorted to for the defence of the ministers at the expense of the monarchy. I know nothing of the last hours of one reign—or the dawn of another—nothing in the change of sovereigns which can lessen the responsibility of their servants, or excuse them from performing their duty to the Crown, be it of a stern and harsh nature, or be it gentle and kind. Beware, I say, how you give any countenance, ay, or any quarter, to topics of defence like these. They are so many arguments against a monarchical constitution, and in favour of some other form of government. This is no discourse of mine. It is not I who am to blame for broaching this matter. You are they (*to the ministers*)—you are they who have forced it into debate—and this despatch—this despatch is the text upon which, trust me, commentators will not be wanting!

But, my lords, these were not the reasons of all the vacillation and all the delay. The real reason oozes out a few pages later in the book before me. I have been reading from the despatch of June 29; turn now to one a fortnight later, and you find that a resolution had all at once been taken to give up the eighth resolution, and ask money from Parliament here, for the Canadian service, instead of despoiling the chest at Quebec. This abandonment of the eighth resolution as to all fruits to be derived from it, is indeed unaccompanied with any benefit whatever from the surrender—the announcement of the policy, harsh and insulting, is to continue; only its enforcement is given up, and the people of England are as usual to pay the money. But see with what a magnanimous accompaniment this abandonment—this shifting of the ground is ushered in. We are now in full vigour; and we cannot boast too loudly of it, while in the very act of performing the crowning feat of impotency. "The time (says this very despatch) has passed away in which it was right to pause and deliberate." Some hopes indeed seem yet to have been entertained of amicable adjustment—it

it difficult to see why—nor indeed does the noble secretary of state see—for he candidly says,—“hopes, resting as I must confess on no very definite ground;” yet he adds,—“I cannot altogether despair that the assembly, or some considerable portion of it, will abandon their course”—I suppose because there was nothing whatever to make them think of doing any such thing. My noble friend, however, in the act of abandoning his course,—a course which he declares was “entered on by him upon no light or ordinary motives”—adds, “To retreat from such a course would be inconsistent with our most deliberate sense of public duty.” “Deprecating, therefore, (he proceeds,) every appearance of vacillation where no doubt really exists”—and so forth. Then did he flatter himself, that when the appearance of vacillation was so much to be deprecated, its reality would work no harm to the public service? Did he not perceive that all he here so powerfully urges against inaction and hesitation, and oscitancy, and faltering, were triumphant arguments in favour of that line of conduct which he never once pursued? This despatch, full of reasons against vacillation, affords the most marvellous sample of it which is to be found in the whole train of his proceedings. The resolutions were passed almost unanimously—it was resolved to take the money of the good people of Canada—it was affirmed that there must be no pause—no doubt—no vacillation—and the new determination prefaced by this announcement, is that the former resolutions about which no man (say they) can now have any doubt, shall be given to the winds, and the money taken from the pockets of the good people of England!

It would indeed seem, that just about this time some wonderful change had come over the minds of the ministers, depriving them of their memory, and lulling even their senses to repose—that something had happened, which cast them into a sweet slumber—a deep trance—such as physicians tell us, not only suspends all recollection of the past, but makes men impervious to the impressions from surrounding objects through the senses. Could this have arisen from the deep grief into which my noble friend and his colleagues were known to have been plunged by the decease of their kind and generous master? No doubt that feeling must have had its day—or its hour—but it passed swiftly away—it is not in the nature of grief to endure for ever. Then how came it to pass that the trance continued? Was it that the demise of one monarch is necessarily followed by the accession of another? Oh—doubtless its pleasing endurance must have been caused by the elevation of their late gracious master’s illustrious successor, prolonging the suspension of the faculties which grief had brought on—but changing it into that state, inexpressibly delicious, which was suited to the circumstances, so interesting, of the new reign. Or could it be, that the whig party, having for nearly a hundred years been excluded from the banquet of royal favour, had now sitten down to the rich repast with an appetite, the growth of a century’s fast, and were unable to divert their attention from so pleasurable and unusual an enjoyment, to mere vulgar matters of public duty, and bring their faculties, steeped in novel delight, to bear upon points so distant as

Canada—affairs so trivial as the tranquillity of the most important province of the crown, and the peace of this country—possibly of the world? All these inconsiderable interests being in jeopardy, were they insufficient to awaken our rulers from their luxurious stupor? I know not—I put the query—I suggest the doubt—I am unable to solve it—I may, for aught I know, have hit upon the solution; but of this I am sure, that to some such solution one is unavoidably led by the passage of the despatch which refers to the demise and accession as the cause of the general and absolute inaction which at that critical moment prevailed. But another event was in prospect, the harbinger of almost as much joy as the prospects of the new reign—I mean the prospect of a new Parliament. The despatch gives the approaching dissolution as one reason for the conduct, or rather the inaction of the government—and I sincerely believe most truly—for as surely as an accession follows a dissolution of the prince, so surely does an election follow a dissolution of his Parliament. It is not that there was any thing like a justification of the bill not being introduced, in the approaching dissolution; for there was abundance of time to pass it between the beginning of May and the end of July, when Parliament was dissolved. It could not have been much delayed in the other House, where such unprecedented majorities had concurred in passing all the resolutions; and in this House, my noble friend* knows he can do as he likes—I mean when he is doing wrong—*Illâ se jactet in Aulâ*, and he is little opposed here. I am far from saying your lordships would so readily let him do anything to advance the interests of the people, or extend their rights; but only let him invade their liberties, and he is sure to find you every way indulgent; such is your partiality for a bold and decided policy; so great your inclination to support what are termed vigorous measures! It is not, therefore, with the dissolution that I can connect the laches of the government in the way in which they urge it as a defence. But they were impatient to get rid of the old Parliament, that they might be electing a new one, and all their attention was absorbed in their election schemes. Their hopes were high; they reckoned upon gaining largely, and little dreamt that upon their appeal to the people, instead of gaining fifty, they should lose fifteen. Those “hopes too fondly nursed,” were afterwards “too rudely crossed;” but at the time they filled their whole soul, and precluded all attention or care for other matters; whether justice to Canada, or justice to England. What passed in this House, to the serious interruption of our judicial functions, may be taken as a proof how little chance any colonial affairs had of commanding a moment’s regard, or delaying for a day the much-wished-for general election. The report had been made to head-quarters by the proper officers—those whose duty it is to preside over the gathering of the Commons; to take care that there shall be a House when it is wanted, or that there shall be none when that is expedient; and above all, whose department is to arrange the times and seasons of elections. The result

* Lord Melbourne.

was, that the interests of the ministry were understood to require that certain writs should issue on the Monday, and that on no account whatever the Parliament should be allowed to exist another day. In the general joy of the new reign and the sanguine hopes from the new Parliament, my noble friend on the Woolsack,* seemed himself to be a partaker. He betrayed signs of hilarity unwonted: I saw him, I can undertake to say, smile twice at that critical period, and I have heard it said, that the same symptom was observed on one other occasion; but that of course passed away. We were engaged in a most important cause—a question of law—long the subject of dispute in Westminster Hall, and on which the different courts there had widely disagreed. It had come at length before this House for decision in the last resort, and after being fully argued, the learned judges, whose assistance your lordships had, still differing in opinion, had delivered their arguments *serialim*. It was for the House to determine, and set the controverted point at rest for ever by a solemn decision; and accordingly, on the Saturday, my noble and learned friend had begun by moving an affirmance of the judgment below; and by a natural mistake (the point being wholly of common law) he had given a reason rather for reversing than affirming, by citing the case that made against his argument. At this identical moment there was observed to approach him from behind a form not unknown to the House, though to the law unknown, the lord privy seal, robed as a peer of parliament, and interrupting the judge in delivering his judgment, to suggest what immediately put an end to my noble and learned friend's argument. There could be no doubt of the purport of that communication; the hour of four had arrived, and then, if at all, must the Commons be summoned to hear the commission read. The privy seal had warned the great seal that if the judgment were given—if the reasons in its favour were assigned, only the ones against it having been stated—the Parliament could not be dissolved on Monday; and thus the grave interests of the elections might be sacrificed to the mere administration of justice. The judgment being thus prematurely closed, and the argument left against, and not for, the decision recommended by the speaker of your lordships' House, the commission was executed, and some score or two of bills were passed. The judicial business was then resumed. Your lordships differed in opinion. The Lord Chief Justice took a view opposite to that of the Lord Chancellor. It was my fortune to agree with the latter; and after considerable argument the judgment was affirmed, not for the reason which he had given in favour of it, but in spite of the reason which he had argued against it. But this was not all: I and other noble lords were most anxious to have the dissolution postponed one day longer, in order to dispose of several important causes which had been fully heard at heavy expense to the parties, and to prevent the risk of the whole expense being renewed in case those who had heard them should die before next session, or be unable to attend the judicial business of the House.

* Lord Cottenham.

We earnestly besought the government to grant this postponement for so important a purpose, as well as to prevent the vexation to the parties of increased and most needless delay; to the court, the serious inconvenience of deciding a year after the argument had been heard. But we prayed in vain; they would hear of nothing but dissolving and electing—would attend to nothing else—would allow nothing to interpose between them and their favourite electioneering pursuits; and the reports of your lordships' judicial proceedings bear testimony to the haste with which, to attain those electioneering objects, the session was closed, and the administration of justice in the last resort interrupted. Well, therefore, might the noble lord's despatch of the 14th July, assign the approaching dissolution of Parliament as a principal reason why Canada could not be attended to. Although not in the sense of that despatch, or as anything like an excuse for his conduct, assuredly the dissolution and its consequences had much to do with that neglect of duty. It called away the minds of men to nearer and dearer objects; fixed their attention upon things that far more nearly touched them—things that came home to their business and bosoms; the preparations for the approaching elections; and the affairs of the remote province, which had at no time engrossed too much of their care, were thought of no more.

Thus, then, my lords, all is uniform and consistent in these transactions: all is in keeping in the picture which these papers present to the eye. A scene is certainly unfolded not much calculated to raise in our estimation the capacity, the firmness, the vigour, or the statesman-like habits of those distinguished persons to whose hands has been committed the administration of our affairs. I do not by any means intend to assert that the great qualities of public life may not be discovered in these proceedings. I should be far from saying that both deliberation and despatch may not be traced in their conduct;—deliberation amounting even to balancing, and pausing, and delay;—despatch running into rapidity, precipitancy, hurry. You meet with the unhesitating haste, and with the mature reflection; the *consulto* and the *matura facto* are both there. But then they are at the wrong time and in the false position: the rapidity presides over the deliberative part—the deliberation is applied to the executive. The head is at fever heat; the hand is paralyzed. There is no lack of quickness, but it is in adopting plans fitted to throw the country into a flame; no lack of delay, at the moment when those schemes are to be carried into execution. They rush unheeding, unhesitating, unreflecting into resolutions, upon which the wisest and readiest of mankind could hardly pause and ponder too long. But when all is determined—when every moment's delay is fraught with peril—then comes the uncertainty and irresolution. They never pause until the season has arrived for action, and when all faltering, even for the twinkling of an eye, is fatal, then it is that they relapse into supineness and inaction; look around them, and behind them, and everywhere but before them; and sink into repose, as if all had been accomplished, at the moment when everything remains to be done. If I were to ransack all the records

to which I have ever had access of human conduct in administering great affairs, whether in the annals of our own times or in the ages that are past, I should in vain look for a more striking illustration of the Swedish Chancellor's famous saying to his son, as he was departing to assist at the congress of statesmen, "*I fili mi ut videas quantum sapientiâ regalur mundus!*"

My lords, I cannot sit down without expressing also my opinion upon the conduct of the other party in this disastrous struggle. Both here, and elsewhere still more, invectives have been lavished with an unsparing hand upon those whom the proceedings of the government first drove to disaffection, and afterwards, by neglect, encouraged to revolt. I will not stoop to protect myself from a charge of being prone to vindicate, still less encourage men in their resistance to the law, and their breach of the public peace. But while we thus speak of their crimes, and give vent to the angry feelings that these have excited among us, surely it becomes us to reflect that we are blaming men who are not present to defend themselves—condemning men who have no person here to say one word in explanation or palliation of their conduct—and that while we have before us their adversaries in this country, and the whole statements of their adversaries in the colony, from themselves we have not one single word spoken or written to assist us in forming our judgment, or to stay our sentence against them. To any fair and candid, not to say generous nature, I am sure I need not add another word for the purpose of showing how strong is their claims to all forbearance, to every allowance which it is possible for charity to make in scanning their conduct. Then I shall ever hold those deeply responsible who could have made all resistance impossible by making it hopeless, but who sent out no reinforcements with that design—those who first irritated, and then did not control—who, after goading to insurrection, did nothing to overawe and deter insurgents. And after all, when men so vehemently blame the Canadians, who is it, let me ask, that taught them to revolt? Where—in what country—from what people did they learn the lesson? You exclaim against their revolt—though you have taken their money against their wishes, and set at naught the rights you boasted of having bestowed upon them. You enumerate their other comforts—that they pay few taxes—receive large aids from this country—enjoy precious commercial advantages for which we pay dear—and then you say, the whole dispute for which they have rebelled is about the taking of twenty thousand pounds without the consent of their representatives! Twenty thousand pounds taken without their consent! Why, it was for twenty shillings taken that Hampden resisted—and by his resistance, won for himself an imperishable name, which the Plantagenets and the Guelphs would give all the blood that swells their veins to boast of! If to resist oppression—if to rise against usurped power, and defend our liberties when assaulted, be a crime—who are the greatest of all criminals? Who but ourselves, the English people? We it is that have set the example to our American brethren. Let us beware how we blame them too harshly for following it! My lords, I

throw out these things with no view of merely giving offence in any quarter—I do so with a better object—an object of all others the dearest to my heart at this moment,—to prevent, by this palliating reflection, the shedding of one drop of blood, beyond what self-defence and the lowest demands of justice administered in mercy require—to warn those into whose hands the sword is committed, that they have a care how they keep it unsheathed one instant after the pike of the rebel has been thrown away!

My lords, the speech of my noble friend would now carry me after him into a wide field—the consideration of the new system which is to be proposed for governing the colony. Upon that ground I decline entering at present; but the general aspect of it demands a single remark. The constitution is to be suspended for three years, and a governor is to rule with absolute power; and yet all the while the boast is that the insurrection has been partial—that only a single county of the whole eight has taken any share in it—and that all the rest of the community are loyal and well affected! Then, I ask, why are the loyal and well affected, because they have put down the partial revolt, to be punished for the offences of others, and to lose not only the privileges which you gave them in 1831, but the constitution which Mr. Pitt gave them forty years before? This may be vigour—it is certainly not justice. It looks like an awkward and preposterous attempt to supply at this late hour the total want of activity which has prevailed throughout the whole conduct of government, by an excess of action—by a morbid vigour that can work nothing but mischief to all. It is a proceeding wholly repugnant to all ideas of justice, and contrary to common sense. Only see how utterly this measure is inconsistent with the rest of my noble friend's defence. When you ask why no force was despatched to secure the peace of the colony—you are told it was quite unnecessary—the people were all so loyal that the peace was in no peril, and sending troops would only have been offering a groundless insult by suspecting their zeal and devotion. But when it is thought desirable to destroy the free constitution and put a pure despotism in its place—straightway it is found out that the whole mass of the population is disaffected and can no longer be intrusted with political rights. The rebellious spirit shifts and changes—contracts and expands—just as it suits the purpose of the argument. Now it is confined to a single county—pent up in a corner of the settlement—bounded by the river Richelieu. This is when the ministers are charged with having left the colony to its own resources. Presently the new plan of arbitrary government is on the carpet, and immediately the revolt spreads in all directions—spurns the bounds of rivers and mountains—diffuses itself over the whole country—and taints the mass of the inhabitants. My lords, I care not which way the question is put, but it is a question that must be answered before these ministers can compass both their objects, of defending their past conduct and obtaining new powers. The dilemma is now complete and perfect. If the colony was in such a state as to justify this arbitrary bill, why did you leave it without a force? If

the colony was in such a state as justified you in withholding reinforcements, what pretence have you for disturbing its peace, and inflicting upon it a despotic government? Answer me these questions. One answer will suffice for both. But I believe for that answer I shall wait for ever and in vain.

But then it seems that this despotic constitution is only to be the forerunner of some other arrangement. Whether the noble lord had himself formed a very clear and precise idea of that ulterior measure I am unable to say with confidence. But this I know, that his explanation of it left me without the power of comprehending it with any distinctness; and what I could comprehend seemed absurd in the extreme. Of all established constitutions we are bound to speak with some respect, more or less, they have been tried, and at least been found to answer some of the purposes for which they were designed. But a wholly new and untried scheme is entitled to no respect at all beyond what its intrinsic merits claim; and as far as this scheme is comprehensible, it appears eminently ridiculous. A certain number of persons we are told are to be called by the governor to his aid as councillors, but how they are to be selected, and what powers they are to have, we are not informed. Is the governor to summon whom he pleases? Then he gives no share whatever in the deliberations to the people, and for the purpose of conciliation, or indeed of learning the public opinion, the proceeding is utterly nugatory. Is he to choose the districts and leave the electors there to send representatives? But still it is a packed assembly, and no voice is given to the bulk of the community. Is he then to issue writs generally—only requiring ten councillors instead of ninety representatives to be elected for his help-mates? But when the whole country is unanimously of one opinion, this plan can have no other effect than to bring together a Parliament composed exactly like the present, only fewer in number and under a different name. It is plain that, in one way or another, the intention must be that the people shall not elect freely as they now do, else a Parliament precisely like the disaffected one will be returned; and that those elected shall have no power to act unless they do as they are bid, otherwise the government will be in the precise difficulty which now oppresses it. But if any such semblance only of consulting the people is all you mean to give—if under the pretence of calling them to your aid you exclude all the men of their choice, and only take counsel with creatures of your own—I tell you fairly that such an intolerable mockery will avail you nothing. Better proclaim at once a despotism, without any disguise or any mitigation. Make the governor supreme. Let him rule without advice or even instruction—in his own name, and not in the name of the law—for your interest, and not for that of the colonial people.

But, my lords, I have said that I should at present forbear to pursue in detail the subject which we shall hereafter have ample opportunities of discussing at large. Neither will I go into the particulars of the civil war that has so lamentably been kindled. I have mentioned that there is reason for hoping its disasters have already reached their term.

I hope, most devoutly hope, it may be so. No thanks to the government, the colonists themselves, left wholly to their own resources and their own zeal, are supposed to have quelled the insurrection and restored peace. But what kind of possession is that which must be kept by force of arms? Are we not here reminded of Mr. Burke's observation upon the too parallel case of America? Here, however, I must in passing, express my astonishment at finding the address now moved, to be so nearly copied from that of 1775—after the peremptory denial of my noble friend,* when I the other night said I supposed it would turn out to be so. Really, though he is but a novice in office, he made the denial with a readiness and glibness, that might have done honour to those inveterate habits of official assertion, only acquired by the few who are born in Whitehall and bred in Downing street. And yet when we look at it, we find it the same address with that of 1775 to the very order of the topics—all but one passage which is of necessity omitted here, because I defy the utmost courage of official assertors to have reproached the Canadians as my noble friend's predecessor Lord North did the Americans, with making an ungrateful return to the tenderness shown by Parliament towards the principles of the English law and the English constitution. The authors of the eighth resolution, were not, I presume, capable of setting their hands to such a boast as this. In all other respects the two addresses are identical. May the omen not prove inauspicious, and may the likeness end here!

But I was drawn aside from the just remark of Mr. Burke, which I was about to cite. The rebels, said he, may be put down, but conquering is not governing, and a province which, to be retained, must be always subdued, is little worth keeping. My lords, I may truly say the same of Canada. The revolt may be suppressed; I hope it is suppressed already, and that the blood of our American brethren has ceased to flow. But the difficulty of the case is only then beginning. Then comes the time to try the statesmen—the far more delicate question then arises—and the more important—demanding infinitely greater circumspection and foresight, wisdom and judgment, than how a rebellion may be suppressed—I mean the question, how a distant province may be well governed—a disaffected people reclaimed—and the maintenance of your empire reconciled with the interests of your subjects? The scheme of polity for accomplishing this great and worthy purpose, must be well matured before it is adopted, and when once adopted, must be executed with vigour; all pausing and faltering must then be ended. I would fain hope that the ministers have been taught a lesson by the past, and that henceforth they will deliberate at the season of proposing measures, and act when the period for executing them arrives. But if I am called upon to pronounce, whether or not the authors of these despatches, the propounders of last year's resolutions, they who followed up their own policy with no one act of vigour, and accompanied it with no indication of foresight—they who embarked in a course avowedly harsh and irritating, without

* Lord Melbourne.

taking a single precaution to prevent or frustrate resistance, and, at the instant when their measures required to be prosecuted with effect, suddenly deserted them—if I am to decide whether or not they are the men endowed with the statesmanlike capacity to meet the difficulties of so arduous an occasion,—I too, must falter and pause before I give an affirmative answer. To quell an insurrection, asks but ordinary resources and every-day talents; a military power—often a police force—may subdue it, and may bridle for a season the disaffected spirit. The real test of the statesman's sagacity and vigour is applied when tranquillity is for a while restored. My lords, painful as the avowal is, their conduct throughout these sad affairs has wrung it from me—I must pause before I can pronounce these men fit for the emergency which is fast approaching, if it have not already come.

But let it not all the while be supposed that when I dwell upon the greatness of the occasion, it is from setting any high value upon such a possession as Canada. The crisis is great, and the position difficult, on the assumption that you will resolve to keep hold of it, whether in prudence you ought or not, and will be for making sacrifices to retain it, of which I hold it altogether unworthy. Not only do I consider the possession as worth no breach of the constitution—no violation of the principles of justice—Good God! what possession can ever be of a value to justify a price like that!—but in a national view, I really hold those colonies to be worth nothing. The only interest we have in the matter, concerns the mode in which a separation, sooner or later inevitable, shall take place. The only question worth considering, as far as our national interest is considered, is whether that separation shall be effected amicably or with hostile feelings,—unless in so far as the honour of the country is involved. But I am not so romantic as to suppose that any nation will ever be willing to give up an extended dominion, how unprofitable, nay, how burthensome soever it may be to hold it. Such possessions, above all, are not likely to be surrendered to dictation and force. The feelings of national pride and honour are averse to yielding in these circumstances; but I do venture to hope, that when all feelings of pride and honour are saved—when resentment and passion have cooled—when the wrongdoers on either side are forgiven—when the reign of law is restored; that justice will be tempered with mercy, the foundation for an amicable separation laid, and an estimate calmly made of the profit and the loss which result from our North American dominions. I am well assured that we shall then find them very little worth the cost they have entailed on us, in men, in money, and in injuries to our trade; nay, that their separation will be even now a positive gain, so it be but effected on friendly terms, and succeeded by an amicable intercourse. The government and defence of Canada alone cost us considerably more than half a million a year; independent of the million and a half which we have expended on the Rideau Canal, and between two and three millions on fortifications, uselessly spent. I speak on the authority of a minister of the Crown, who has recorded his opinion of the burden we sustain in holding such possessions.

LORD GLENELG.—Who?

LORD BROUGHAM.—The paymaster of the forces.* But beside all this, we have to pay 55s. duty on the excellent timber of the Baltic, in order that we may be compelled to use the bad timber of Canada at a higher price, on a 10s. duty. The severance of the colony would not only open our markets to the better and cheaper commodity which grows near our own doors, but would open the Baltic markets to our manufactures, restrained as they now are in their export to the north of Europe by the want of any commodities which we can take in return. Their produce is grain and timber, and our corn laws for the benefit of the landed interest shut out the one, while our colonial laws for the benefit of the planters exclude the other. Is it not then full time that we should make up our minds to a separation so beneficial to all parties, if it shall only take place amicably, and by uniting together the whole of our North American possessions, form an independent, flourishing, and powerful state, which may balance the colossal empire of the west? These, my lords, are not opinions to which I have lately come; they are the growth of many a long year, and the fruit of much attention given to the subject. Of this I am intimately persuaded, that it is of paramount importance to take care how the change shall be consummated. If the severance be effected by violence—if the member be rudely torn away and bleeding from the body of our empire—a wound is left on either side to rankle and irritate and annoy for generations to come. Hence a perennial source of national enmity, the fruitful cause of commercial embarrassments, and of every kind of discontent and animosity not only between the countries, but among the different classes and parties of each. There is no evil against which it better becomes us anxiously to guard. All expedients should be tried to render the severance kindly and gentle—everything resorted to that can pour balm into the wound occasioned by the operation. This is the most sacred duty of every wise and virtuous statesman. Lowering as the aspect of affairs now appears, my hope still is, that those who are entrusted with the government, be they who they may, will bestir themselves, with these views, for this purpose, and, while it is yet time, seek above all things to heal the injuries which imprudence and rashness, complicated with imbecility and vacillation, have inflicted; so as to give us, not outward peace only, but real concord and friendship, without which the wound is but skinned over, and peace must be precarious and only a name. But, to give real peace and concord, the wrongs complained of must be redressed, and I fairly tell you that the master grievance must not be suffered to remain. All Canada cries out for an elective council. Refuse it you cannot. The complaint against its present constitution is like that some time ago urged against this House. (*One of the ministers here said this was not a judicious allusion.*) Will my noble friend, whose eagle-eye can pierce through the darkness of a statement barely commenced, and catch its application to an argument

* Sir H. Parnell.

not yet broached, suspend his sentence of condemnation till he hears whether the allusion be indeed judicious or no? I was stating that language more severe had not been used towards the legislative council in the province, than I have often heard employed in this place against this legislative council of the parent state. But there is a wide difference, my lords, between the two cases; and upon that difference rests the application of my present appeal, so prematurely judged of by my noble friend. First, whereas, only an inconsiderable fraction of the people of England have demanded a reform in the constitution of this House, and even they have not persevered in this demand, all the Canadian people with one voice have called aloud and vehemently for a change in their upper house, and have never for one instant, in any circumstances, abated one jot of the vehemence with which they universally urged that demand. Next, we never have been rationally, or even intelligibly informed in what way the reform of this House could be effected, without the overthrow of our mixed monarchy; whereas the change proposed in the colonial council has always been distinctly stated, and accords with the whole principles and frame of the political constitutions all over the new world. Lastly and chiefly,—the charge made against your lordships of refusing the measures which the other House sent up, rests upon a very narrow foundation indeed, compared with the sweeping accusation brought against them. You altered some bills for the worse, as I think; you mended others, changing them for the better; one or two you wholly rejected in one or two sessions; whereas the council in Canada refused bills of all kinds by wholesale, rejected scores of the most important measures upon all subjects indiscriminately. Bills upon government—education—administration of justice—trade—retrenchment—reform of all abuses—all shared the same fate. Trust me, my lords, if you had been so ill advised as to pursue a course like that, there would a very different cry have arisen for peerage reform from anything you have ever yet heard. With all the difficulty of forming a plan for it, the demand of some change would have become general, if not universal. Instead of a feeble cry, proceeding for a little while from a small portion of the country, all England would have vehemently persevered in the demand of reform. The wisdom of your lordships prevented this. The conduct of the upper house in Canada was the very reverse; and when the people had nothing to hope from its present structure, no wonder that the demand for its change became loud, vehement, universal,—but much wonder if in a cause so just, it should not in the end prove irresistible! In vain, believe me, do you send out new governors with large powers! In vain you commission my noble friend to carry out the force of a despotic government, if he is not also armed with force to redress the master grievance! With every disposition to trust his ability and his temper, the work of reconciliation never can flourish under his hands, if they be not strengthened to do it by the only power which can avail; if they are strong only to inflict new wounds, and impotent to bestow the boon of justice and redress. I shall most deeply deplore his undertaking

such a mission, if he goes thus cramped and fettered. If he is only to carry out the most unconstitutional, the most oppressive act that has crossed the Atlantic since the fatal bill of Massachusetts Bay, I shall lament it on his account, because he can reap from such a service no honour; I shall still more bitterly deplore it for the country's sake, which can derive nothing but disgrace from such a course; for the sake of the first of all blessings, the public peace, which will never be permanently secured by acts of unmitigated injustice!

But once more let me beseech you to resolve that you will abide by the course of justice—grant liberally—improve fearlessly—reform unflinchingly, whatever the Canadian people is entitled to demand that you should grant—improve—reform. By none other measures can either right be done by the parent state to its American subjects, or the character of England be sustained; by no other course can the honour of the Crown, the character of the Parliament, above all the peace of the new world be restored, or the peace of the old maintained!

MALTREATMENT

OF THE

NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

P R E F A C E

TO THE

SEPARATE EDITION OF THIS SPEECH.

THE complaints which had been occasioned by Lord Brougham's former speech upon the mal-administration of our colonial affairs were renewed upon the delivery of the following speech, not by those whose conduct was particularly impugned, but by the noble lord at the head of the government. He spoke with his usual ability, but with less than his accustomed success, because it was exceedingly difficult to perceive what right he had to complain of any one for differing with him in opinion; or what there is in the noble viscount and his colleagues which should exempt them from the lot of all ministers, to have their conduct discussed; or why Lord Brougham should be precluded from pursuing the course which he has all his life held, and defending his well-known principles, merely by the accident of his having once been Lord Melbourne's colleague, and afterwards Lord Melbourne's supporter, so long as his measures accorded with Lord Brougham's views of national policy and public justice. The noble viscount omitted to give, in his able and ingenious speech, any reason in support of the proposition, which he did not indeed state, but from beginning to the end of his remarks assumed to be undeniable, that whoever, having once found him and his present colleagues pursuing a sound policy for some years, shall refuse to change not only his own opinions upon that policy, but the whole opinions of his public life, at the bidding of the cabinet, and to act thenceforth with them in opposition to all his own most cherished principles, must be actuated by some sinister motive, some feeling of a private or personal nature: or the convenient or self-complacent proposition, thus assumed and acted upon by the noble viscount, may be stated in other and fewer words: it is this: that no one can be influenced by justifiable motives, who does not agree with and support the present cabinet through every change of principle, and more especially that portion of the cabinet whose changes have been the most marked, and have been separated from each other by the shortest intervals of time. But to this assumption was added another, peculiarly adapted to the case of Lord Brougham. It was, that no man can ever honestly differ with Lord Melbourne, after once agreeing with him; nor, having supported him in one line of policy, can honestly refuse to support him in its opposite, unless he has some private feeling of spite or of interest to gratify.

A charge so unexpected naturally called forth from the object of it a peremptory and indignant denial;—not indeed more peremptory, but possibly somewhat more

indignant, than the very gross and notorious absurdity of the accusation might appear to warrant. An honest defence disdains recrimination; it meets the charge in front—pointedly repels it if precise, or if vague demands specification—challenges inquiry—and defies to the proof. But the duty of self-vindication once discharged, the interests of justice require that the adventurous and discomfited assailant should be pursued and exposed, in case his own conduct should peradventure be found to have been the subject to which the offensive and ill-considered censure might with perfect accuracy have been applied. Lord Brougham said that he purposely avoided all such contention, and restrained himself within the limits of distinct, unequivocal, uncompromising denial.

The satellites of the government are understood to have been greatly edified and comforted by their leader's tone, marked as it was by more than ordinary animation, though with less than the usual provision of argument. It is respectfully asked of those zealous persons, that they would have the goodness to offer some *explanation* of the grounds of his attack, should it be expecting too much to look for some *proof* of Lord Melbourne's assumptions, in behalf of which he offered no more argument than he did in behalf of the bill itself, or the conduct of Lord Glenelg, or the new morality recently discovered by Sir F. B. Head. Lord Melbourne, in the exalted station which he at present occupies, may not, perhaps, without want of due deference, be called upon for reasons in behalf of the decisions which he so readily pronounces and so rarely defends. He, exempt from the ordinary lot of ordinary ministers, to have their measures debated freely—above the vulgar necessity of assigning grounds for his opinions—removed from the sphere of common mortals, in which he described Lord Brougham to move, and in which he said a man was often blind to what all but himself clearly saw,—has of course the peculiar capacity of forming a sound, because an impartial judgment in his own case; and must be listened to as an authority from which there can be no appeal, when he pronounces judgment between Lord Brougham and himself, and declares that all the world, except Lord Brougham, have long since decided on Lord Melbourne's superior fitness to lead the popular party in this country. These are the attributes of very high station, of profuse royal favour, and of much patronage combined with a little power. But his adherents are not endued with the same infallibility, and cannot so easily be allowed to decide without giving reasons. It is therefore most respectfully asked of them, by what particular argument they mean to disprove Lord Brougham's right to hold in 1838, the same opinions which he held in 1837, and to pursue now the same line of conduct to which Lord Melbourne and others came over in 1831, most creditably to themselves, and most happily for the state, with a celerity that produced the most fortunate results to the country as well as to themselves? And if it be not taking too great a liberty, or taxing their invention too severely, they are also most humbly entreated to show, why Lord Brougham has not as good a title to persevere in that course now, merely because the converts of 1831 have, very unfortunately for the state, though without any kind of reproach to themselves, abandoned it, and returned to their old opinions with a celerity as remarkable as that which marked their former conversion? When this shall be shown, there will be laid a ground for charging Lord Brougham with personal motives in refusing to alter his conduct; and for believing that all mankind consider Lord Melbourne to be an old, consistent, and steady friend of liberal opinions.

Lord Brougham, it may be observed, has never complained of any changes in the conduct and principles of others; he may therefore be the more easily forgiven for claiming the right of adhering to his own. Instead of asking if the conversion witnessed in 1831, of the most zealous enemies of reform into wholesale, almost radical reformers, was quite unconnected with the maintenance of the government they belonged to; and if the re-conversion of November 1837, had its origin in nothing like a notion that the court had become more friendly, and was better worth a prudent statesman's regard than the people; he rested satisfied with assuring the ministers that they might, any day or any hour, restore him to his position as their zealous defender against the tory majority of their adversaries, by simply retracting the declarations against reform with which they unhappily ushered in the session; or, without formally recanting, by merely bringing forward liberal and con-

stitutional measures. They refuse to accept any such offer; they will not comply with that condition. Doubtless they are right—most probably Lord Brougham is wrong; but how he can be charged with falling into his error, great as it may be, through personal feelings, is not so easily perceived.

On the same night, Lord Melbourne disclosed a secret, which is understood to have been, until then, locked up within his own breast. He has, it now appears, been for the last three years constantly expecting Lord Brougham to adopt the course into which he has of late been driven by the government. Then, the observant bystander, who perceives that Lord Brougham never failed to support the ministers most zealously until they changed their conduct, must be led to infer that this change of theirs was all the while foreseen and predetermined by the noble viscount—though certainly concealed with some care, and with entire success, from all his followers. But if it shall be said that the noble viscount's constant expectation, his daily foresight, of what he pleasantly called a change in Lord Brougham, without reflecting that it is an alteration in himself, was owing to some impression which he had respecting Lord Brougham's habits and character, it will follow that he must have given frequent indications of this mistrust, of this presentiment, both in public and in private, and must have explicitly ascribed the active support of 1835, the kind and considerate abstinence of 1836, and the partial and reluctant dissents of 1837, to their real, though still not very intelligible cause; and at all events, that he never can have given Lord Brougham, or any common friends, the most distant ground for believing that he gave him the least credit for being influenced by the kindness of friendship, or the steadiness of principle, or the magnanimous sacrifice of personal considerations to either friendship or duty. It must, of course, be absolutely impossible that Lord Melbourne should have left his opinions and his expectations doubtful upon this head, or ever expressed any feelings of gratitude, much less any indications of being sensibly touched by Lord Brougham's conduct towards him and his government, when he was all the while penetrated with the conviction that Lord Brougham was only waiting for an occasion to vent "his long-suppressed and thus exasperated animosity" against his former friends and colleagues. If, indeed, this should not have been the case—if the very opposite should turn out to have been more nearly the fact—it must be confessed that both these lords have been placed in situations quite unprecedented, though the one of those situations will, perhaps, upon reflection be felt to be somewhat less enviable than the other. It is only consistent with fairness and candour towards a man who certainly never on any former occasion got into such a position, that it should be observed, how likely it is, after all, that Lord Melbourne's boast of his foresight and perspicacity, should be like his Canadian friend's* discovery of the way to deal with revolt—an afterthought—and that, in the heat of the moment, he painted himself in unfavourable colours, by extolling his sagacity at the expense of far more important qualities.†

* Sir F. B. Head.

† A similar indiscretion was committed by the noble viscount, in the first civil list debate, when Lord Brougham was charged by him with courtier-like conduct, in a moment of sudden irritation, brought on, it should seem, by Lord Brougham having made a very harmless observation upon a most notorious circumstance, that of Lord Melbourne living so constantly at court; which he, of course, does in virtue of his office—though certainly none of his predecessors ever devoted so much of their time to this branch of their public duties. The charge of courtiership thus ridiculously levelled at Lord Brougham, he at once repelled, by stating that Lord Melbourne, who had thoughtlessly made it, must better than most men know, if he gave himself a moment's time for reflection, how utterly groundless it was. Indeed, all the world knew this very well; none so well, however, as Lord Brougham's former colleagues and the present royal family. For he it was who, though honoured with the late Duke of Kent's friendship and co-operation upon the great question of education (as referred to in the slavery speech, 20th February 1838), had nevertheless refused to withhold his opposition to that prince's lottery bill in 1818, and caused his royal highness to withdraw it; a step which, as the constant enemy of lotteries, he felt reluctantly obliged to take, notwithstanding his royal highness' urgent application; and to which the duke ever after ascribed his great pecuniary embarrassments. Lord Melbourne and his

But if we reach this conclusion against his own assertion, and only by resorting to the other parts of his conduct, which pretty loudly belie that assertion, it may possibly be deemed not unjust towards the other party to remark, that his life has been marked by little regard to feelings of a sordid cast. That Lord Grey's government might be formed, he most reluctantly yielded to solicitations to abandon an enviable and secure position, both as to profit and power, because he was unwilling to disappoint the Whig party, and shrank from the heavy responsibility of preventing a reform government from being established; though he soon after discovered that the party had fallen into the trap, some of them, it is believed, very willingly, of having him removed from his real and natural place in the Commons House of Parliament. It is pretty well known that he adhered to the cause of slave emancipation, at a large sacrifice of private fortune. It is admitted by Lord Melbourne, that his help was never withheld from the government until they made war upon popular rights last March, and turned their back upon popular opinions last November. Nor is it denied that he has, ever since he ceased to hold office, given up almost his whole time to judicial duties in the House of Lords and the Privy Council, labouring as hard as most of the judges labour in the discharge of their professional duties. Moreover, if Lord Melbourne had spoken with the least reflection, he would have been aware that the facts of the case which he wholly overlooked, are irreconcilably opposed to the intimations of his alleged foresight and acuteness. What does he think, for example, of his leaving entirely out of view the somewhat remarkable circumstance, that Lord Brougham's most active and necessary exertions to defend and uphold the government, (a task somewhat heavier than Lord Melbourne is perhaps aware of,) were made immediately after its formation, when of course, if at any time, Lord Brougham's differences with his former colleagues must have been the widest, upon the supposition of his listening to personal considerations? Then, again, having left out of his view this fact respecting the beginning of the period, how comes the noble viscount to have equally passed over another fact which signalized its close—the ministerial declaration against reform? No attempt is here made to blame that policy; but at least there seems some haste, not to say unfairness, in wholly leaving it out of view, as if it could by no possibility be connected with the matter in question.

It is further worthy of notice, that no complaints are ever made of Lord Brougham during the last two or three years, in any quarter deserving notice. A few anonymous writers, acting upon a mistaken sense of duty—if not upon an erroneous calculation of what would gratify their patrons—amused themselves with very bitter and somewhat heavy, though harmless invectives against Lord Brougham, while he was daily sustaining those patrons with all zeal in the House of Lords. But the party,—especially the cabinet portion of it—were always abundantly loud, and apparently hearty, in expressing their thanks for his public support, their only complaint being that he persisted in withdrawing himself from the intercourse of their private society—a restraint which he must have considered necessary to maintain his independency, else he assuredly never could have subjected himself to what must prove a great loss of enjoyment to him, though it could prove little or none to them. This, however, was the only complaint ever heard, until the change of tone which marked the ministerial declarations at the opening of the new Parlia-

ment. His colleagues must have also well known, that Lord Brougham's falling into disfavour with king William IV, was entirely owing to his pressing upon that monarch the immediate formation of the government under Lord Melbourne himself, and his sudden declaration in his place, that this government was ready to continue in office,—a step which wholly prevented his Majesty from executing his design of changing his ministers as he had hoped to do, if they had expressed any kind of reluctance to go on after Lord Grey's resignation. The same individuals also well knew his Majesty's severe displeasure and disappointment at Lord Brougham's peremptory refusal to take the government in May 1832, when his Majesty was desirous that it should be reconstructed by him of persons willing to carry the reform bill; for it is believed that they both knew of his intercourse with his Majesty, and of the written correspondence on Lord Brougham's positive refusal. All this little indicates *courtier-like habits*.

ment. That Lord Melbourne should have mistaken Lord Brougham's conduct, if it be a mistake into which he has fallen, may appear strange—but that he should pronounce confidently upon a matter unknown to him, can in nowise surprise those who heard him pronounce unhesitatingly that Dr. Robertson was “*a florid and fanciful writer*.” Lord Melbourne's station is no doubt far higher, as first lord of the treasury, than Mr. Gibbon's, who never rose above a seat at the board of trade—but excepting in that department itself, it may be doubted whether any one can be found who would appeal to the minister from the historian's deliberate judgment, that Dr. Robertson was “*the most accurate of all historians*.” To charge so chaste a writer with a florid style, seems an hallucination only to be matched by the comparison of Gasca, whose name the noble viscount had never before heard of, with the governor of Upper Canada, of whom he had heard a good deal too much.

It must further be observed that Lord Brougham never laid any ground for disappointment, by professing an adhesion to the government in all circumstances. On the contrary, his speech in July 1835, at Liverpool,* expressly avowed that he would look to their measures, and that when he found these were framed with a regard to the people's good, and propounded on the principles which were known to guide his public conduct, he would support them—but if another course were pursued, he would oppose them, and see which party the people would stand by. These were his words while preparing to redeem the first part of the pledge, by supporting the municipal reform which he almost singly fought through the House of Lords. It is once more respectfully and humbly asked why he should be so piteously complained of for now redeeming the other pledge also? It really seems as if no supporters were valued or trusted except those who have adopted the new maxim of treasury morality never professed by Lord Brougham, possibly never clearly comprehended by him, that the more a ministry is in the wrong, the more imperative becomes the duty of flying to its defence. Who so would work out his salvation in Downing Street, it is necessary that he believes this; and if he act up to his faith, he shall be deemed a friend indeed.

That there is any great danger of the people suddenly deserting the government, and opposing them, is little to be apprehended. The people are disappointed, disheartened, and dispirited—they are becoming distrustful of all public men of the regular whig party, as they are hostile to all of the adverse faction, although from the latter they never could have less of constitutional reform, and probably would have more of important practical improvements; and, at least, their restoration to place would give back to the liberal side many of its best supporters, who are at present trammelled by official connection, and other ties hard to loosen. But although the people are thus flat and indifferent,—although they may do nothing to destroy the existing ministry,—they will not stir a finger to help it; the first quarrel with the court will seal its doom; and the whigs, as a party, will have ceased to rule. The ministers see none of these things; they hear the voice of the charmer only, whose accents, modulated to the key of the ear he wishes to tickle, pour out only the pleasing fallacy, the harmonious misrepresentation, the silver-toned strain of hope, the cheerful note of confidence,—and whose especial object it is to suppress all unpleasing discords from unwelcome facts and unfavourable symptoms. That the people are friendly while they remain passive and do not oppose; that the select circle of the occupants of place, who rival the serpent, if not in his wisdom yet in his tenacity of life, form the whole whig party; and that, if it is at all necessary to consult the opinions of any others, it is needless to go further than the outer circle,—the eager, ardent, irrepressible, resistless expectants of promotion, who have no opinions at all except of their own fitness for place, nor any principles at all except that whatever the ministry does, or indeed can do, must be right, and that the whole duty of political men is comprised in three words—“support the ministry”—such are the bland accents which compose the dulcet notes of “linked sweetness long drawn out,” and which ever vibrate grateful, seldom unrequited, on the ministerial ear. But that they beguile the reason while they charm the sense,—that they lull their victim to sleep in the midst of peril,—and bring on a sad reverse, which they make more hard to bear by precluding all preparation for it,—

* Printed in this collection.

are truths attested by all experience of all public men. In the present case their worst effect remains to be told. The deceiver tempts his dupes to their ruin, by inducing a belief that nothing they can do will forfeit the support of staunch friends; and it is discovered, when too late, that there may happen a catastrophe foretold by Lord Brougham in one of the civil list debates, when he said—"That the people would one day awake and ring such a peal in the ears of the ministers as would be remembered, not merely to the end of their official existence, but to the last hour of the public life of the youngest functionary among them."

S P E E C H

ON THE

MALTREATMENT OF THE NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

FEBRUARY 2, 1838.

How comes it to pass, my lords, by what fate of mine is it, that as often as this great question of our colonies comes on in this place—whether in the ill-fated resolutions of last May, or in the interlocutory conversations raised by the expectations of this measure, or on the address which announced its nearer approach, or now on the bill itself which embodies it—I alone should be found to interrupt the universal harmony of your councils—alone to oppose a bill presented by the government without any defence, but immediately taken up and zealously supported by their adversaries—alone to rise up in defence of the constitution—alone to resist the breach of all law, the violation of all justice, in this high court of law, which distributes justice without appeal—alone to withstand arbitrary and tyrannical innovations, standing here, in the senate—the conservative senate of a free country—alone to maintain the peace and stay the dismemberment of the empire, among your lordships, who of all men that live have the deepest interest in peace, and the empire being preserved entire? The position which I occupy is surrounded with difficulty and embarrassment; the task I perform is a thankless one; but I will not—I may not—abandon the post in which my duty has planted me; and I am here, at the last hour of the hateful conflict, again attempting to discharge this ungrateful duty. From so unequal a contest I may retire defeated, but not disgraced. I am aware that I may gain no advantage for those whose rights I am defending, but I am well assured that I shall retain the approval of my own mind.

When the question of Canada was last before us, I purposely avoided following the noble secretary of state over the ground to which he invited me, because I knew that another opportunity would occur for discussing the provisions of the measure, the outline of which

he then gave by anticipation. That occasion has now arrived, and I have attentively, and, as became me, respectfully, listened to the statement of my noble friend.* I find that he has said in explanation of the bill—nothing; in defence of the bill—nothing. Not a gleam of light was cast by him upon its darker places; nothing was said to clear up the obscurities which are remarked in its arrangements; nothing to reconcile the incongruities with which it abounds; nothing to make a measure acceptable, which all allow to be harsh and arbitrary; nothing to show why it is introduced now rather than at any other time. In short, nothing whatever is urged in defence or in palliation of the government's policy, save the very able, and on that portion of the subject, the very temperate speech of the noble earl† opposite, an avowed adversary of the government on all other questions. And it must be granted that the noble earl anxiously confined his support to the measure itself, and suffered no portion of his eulogy to overflow upon its authors. Taking under his protection the offspring of the cabinet, which had been abandoned by its parent as soon as it saw the light, the noble earl fosters it with no stepmother's care, plainly showing that had such a thing not been engendered on this side the House, we should have had it produced on the other. Before going, however, to the arguments for the measure, I must advert for a moment to the course pursued by the noble earl in following up the noble duke‡ and noble earl's§ protest against having it conceived that their approval of the bill implied any approval of the government's conduct, on which they intended afterwards to pronounce their free opinion. That opinion has now indeed been very freely pronounced by the noble earl; and in listening to it, I could not help reverting to the extreme offence taken by my noble friend a few nights ago at the freedom of my remarks upon the same subject. I could not help recollecting the elaborate contrast which these remarks called forth between my conduct towards old colleagues, and the noble duke's who had so chivalrously come to the defence of his opponents—coupled with the panegyric pronounced, God knows most justly, on the vast superiority of the duke's mind to his of whose attack the noble secretary of state so bitterly complained. I really suspect that to-night, if any such comparisons are instituted between me and the noble earl, I may look forward to a more favourable verdict from my noble friend. Not that the professions or the tone of the noble earl have been less friendly than those of the noble duke; for he promised to treat the government with charity. My lords, the noble earl's is not that charity which covers a multitude of transgressions; but rather that which covers a multitude of attacks. Anything less kindly I have seldom heard than the performance of this fine promise—anything more bitter to taste than the fruit that followed a blossom so fair to behold. I am in hopes that it may, by its contrast with my milder rebuke, have the effect of restoring me to the affections of my noble friend. Of this I am quite certain, that he

* Lord Glenelg.

§ Earl of Ripon.

† Earl of Aberdeen.

‡ Duke of Wellington.

would fain I interposed to rescue him from the hands into which he has now fallen; and to deliver him from the earl, as the duke before delivered him from me. He must be most anxious to be saved from the charity of the noble earl, and as for the forbearance he promised, why it was really worse to bear than the charity itself. He would not even give the conduct of government the poor praise of being systematically wrong. It is not a system of delay, said he—it is a practice originating in inveterate and incurable habits of wavering, vacillation, and infirmity of purpose—and all this applied to describe the conduct of a great minister in a great emergency, which called imperiously for the very opposite qualities—and this, the noble earl's way of showing his forbearance in the exercise of his charity.

Having endeavoured to set myself right on the personal matters connected with this question, and so removed the trivial parts of the subject; the way is now cleared for arriving at the important part of the argument; and I approach this, I confess, with some degree of anxiety, fearful of wearying your lordships by repetitions which it is hardly possible to avoid. The conduct of the Canadian assembly is attacked again—that body is condemned by my noble friend for an abuse of their privileges—by the noble earl, with more accuracy of expression for a breach of duty in refusing supplies—it is indeed the whole defence of the measure before you. Both these noble lords contend, that after such a refusal in Canada, there is but one course to be taken here—to suspend the constitution altogether. The powers you gave the colony are abused: therefore take away the constitution—not, observe, resume the powers that have been abused—but take away all powers together. That is the argument, neither, as I think, very conclusive, nor even quite intelligible. The noble earl praised the proceedings of the committee that sat in 1828, and quoted the assembly's words in order to prove that the colonists were then satisfied and grateful. No doubt they were, because their grievances were considered, and redress was promised. The same kindly feelings continued not only till 1831, but after that year; they were even increased by the great measures of that year, which gave them the control of the supplies—the power of the purse. What were those complaints which then arose against them? They had been told that whatever grievances they complained of, the power of refusing supplies gave them the means of obtaining redress—that they no longer were mocked with the name of the English constitution, but had the reality conferred upon them, with all its rights. The power which we told them we had thus bestowed, and boasted of our kindness in bestowing, the shortsighted, simple-minded men, proceeded to use, as if they really believed they had gotten it! Innocent individuals! to believe what you told them, and act upon the belief! to believe you when you said they might give their money, or might withhold it, as they chose—and they chose to withhold it! to fancy that you meant something when you said they could now stand out for redress if they had anything to complain of—and then to stand out in the very way you had said they might! You give them a spe-

cific power for a particular purpose, and the instant they use it for that very purpose, you turn round upon them and say—"Saw any one ever the like of this? Were ever men before so unreasonable? You are absolutely doing what you were told you had a full right to do whenever you pleased—Why, you are exercising the very rights the constitution gave you—you are using the privileges we bestowed, and using them for the purpose they were meant to serve—you are therefore abusing them—you are acting by the strict letter of your new constitution—therefore you are unworthy of it, and we shall instantly take the new constitution away, and not only the new, but the old, which you have had for near half a century." Such is the mockery—the unbearable insult which you have put upon this people. First, you boast of having given them the power of the purse, and then the first time they use it, you cry out that they are acting illegally. It turns out that this power of granting or refusing supplies, was all the while never intended to serve any other purpose than rounding a period in some conciliatory royal despatch from Downing Street, or some gracious vice-regal speech at Quebec. The real meaning of the whole was simply this.—You shall have the power of doing as you choose about supplies, but always upon this condition, that you shall choose to do as we please. You have the option of giving or refusing, but understand distinctly, that if you exercise it in any way but one, you forfeit it, and with it all your other privileges.

As for the noble duke,* I can far more easily understand his course upon the present occasion, because he singly opposed the bill of 1831, and entered his protest upon our journals. He objected altogether to giving the power over supplies which that bill bestowed. But when I turn to my noble friends, the authors of that bill, they who gave that power, what am I to think, when I find them crying out treason the instant it is used? Nay, I find them not merely complaining of its use, but because it is used, they take away, not only the power itself, but the whole constitution given by Mr. Pitt's bill of 1791, or rather Lord Grenville's—for he was the author of the constitution—and substituting in its stead what they themselves allow to be an arbitrary and tyrannical form of government. The crime charged upon the Canadians, and for which they are to be punished by the loss of their free constitution, is refusing supplies. Instantly the resolutions are passed. The noble earl† confesses that those resolutions are calculated to harass and vex the Canadians. Then their natural consequences follow; the Canadians are irritated, and no precaution whatever is taken to prevent them from revolting; not a man is sent; not an order issued; not an instruction forwarded; not one line written; not one word spoken, to prevent what is freely admitted to be the natural consequences of the resolutions! All this seems sufficiently marvellous; but this is not all: we now have a scene disclosed that baffles description and mocks belief—a scene which I defy the history of all civilized, all Christian countries, to match. A governor—appointed to administer the law

* Duke of Wellington.

† Earl of Aberdeen.

—to exercise the authority of the state for the protection of the subject—one commissioned to distribute justice in mercy—whose office it is above that of all mankind to prevent crimes—and only to punish them when it exceeds his power to prevent their being committed—he who, before all, because above all, is bound to guard against offences the people committed to his care—he who first and foremost is planted by the sovereign in authority to keep the people out of doing any wrong, that the law may not be broken, and there may be no evil-doers to punish—he it is that we now see boasting in his despatches, wherein he chronicles his exploits—boasting yet more largely in the speech he makes from the throne which his conduct is shaking, to the people whom he is misgoverning²—boasting that he refrained from checking the machinations he knew were going on;—that, aware of the preparations making for rebellion, he purposely suffered them to proceed;—that, informed the crime was hatching, he wilfully permitted it to be brought forth;—that, acquainted with the plans laying by traitors, with the disaffection hourly spreading, with the maturity every moment approached by treason, with the seductions practised upon the loyal subject, with the approach each instant made by the plot towards its final completion, and its explosion in a wide spread revolt:—he, he the chief magistrate and guardian of the peace and executor of the law, yet deemed it fitting that he should suffer all to go on uninterrupted, unmolested; should turn a deaf ear to the demands of the peaceable and the loyal for protection, lest any such interference should stay the course of rebellion; nay, sent away the troops, for the express purpose of enticing the disaffected to pursue and to quicken the course of their crimes! Gracious God! Do I live in a civilized country? Am I to be told that such is the conduct of a parent state towards her children of the colonies? Is this the protection which we extend to the subjects over whom we undertake to rule on the other side of the Atlantic? Does it after all turn out that our way of governing distant provinces is to witness disaffection, and encourage it till it becomes treason; to avoid all interference which may stay its progress; to remove all our force, lest it might peradventure control the rebellious, while it comforted and protected the loyal? The fact was known, but the plan is now avowed; and the fatal result is before the world. Blood has been shed; but not on one side only—the blood of the disaffected has indeed flowed; but so also has the blood of those whom our wicked policy had suffered traitors to seduce. It was not until that horrid catastrophe had happened, that the King's peace was allowed to be restored! I am filled with unutterable horror and dismay at this scene! I appeal to the bench of bishops! I call upon them that they lay this matter to their hearts, and reflect upon the duty and the office of a Christian man. Shall he be held guiltless, be his station what it may, if he allows sin in others whom he has the power to save from it, much more if he takes measure for ensnaring his brother into guilt, that he may fall, and pay the penalty of his transgression? How much more, then, if he be a ruler of the people, set over them

to keep them right! I call upon the reverend judges of the land to frown down by their high authority this monstrous iniquity! Let them tell how they deal with the men who come before their tribunals, not as vindicators of crime, and enforcers of the law, but as tempters to seduce the unwary, and make him their prey! Let them describe to us those feelings which fill their breasts, when the very scum of the earth's scum is cast up before the judgment-seat—that indignation which agitates them, and seeks its vent upon the head of him who might have prevented the law from being broken, but prefers, for some sordid purpose, standing by to see the offence perpetrated, and then drags his victim to justice! That indignation they must now transfer to this place, and pour it upon the supreme ruler of a province, who has the courage to boast that such has been his conduct towards the people committed to his care; vaunting of such misdeeds to the sovereign who employed him, and to the subjects whom he misgoverned in the trust which he betrayed. It is well for him to speak with regret of the blood thus spilt—well to lament the gallant Colonel Moody thus foully slaughtered, and who would never have been attacked, had the troops been left at their post whom the governor made it his boast that he had sent away! Possibly the whole may be the after-thought of a vain man, which he never would have uttered had the revolt not been put down. But assuredly, if the force had remained, we should have had to rejoice in its prevention instead of its suppression; and instead of lamenting bootlessly the loss of the gallant men thus sacrificed, he might have had the better feeling to indulge of saving their lives to their country, and preserving instead of restoring the public peace which he was sent to maintain.

The same governor, however, has not, as I find, been satisfied with a civil war; he must needs do his best to endanger the peace with the United States. He has threatened that powerful neighbour with hostilities. It appears that the neutrality of the American territory has been violated, nor could such an event excite surprise. A volunteer force must always be less easy to control, and more prone to commit excesses, than those regularly disciplined troops who were sent away at the time their services were most indispensable. The noble duke* expressed himself satisfied with the force in the Canadas, upon the authority of military men whose opinions he had taken. No one is more ready than I am, to be guided by such authority—that is to say, upon all military questions. If we are asked whether a certain number of troops be sufficient to defend a post, or even to put down a revolt which has actually broken out, to the opinion of military men I will bow—not so where the question is, what force should be kept in a province in order to prevent all revolt from taking place: that is a question of civil and not military polity. Still more if the question be, whether it is fitter to keep down all rebellion, than to wait till it rages, and then suppress it—that is no more a military question than any of those matters which daily occupy the attention of Parliament; no more

* Duke of Wellington.

than a bill relative to police, or to any other department of the civil government of the country. The noble earl,* with much good sense, referred to a high authority, and cited a very sound opinion upon this grave and important subject, when he repeated the valuable saying of an eminent man, that "a far less force might be required to put down a revolt than to prevent one." The charge I now make runs through the whole of the question before us; and one more serious cannot be brought against any government. The ministers are accused, and as yet without offering explanation or defence, of having occasioned, by their own incapacity and that of their emissaries, a civil war, the effusion of innocent blood, and the seduction of loyal subjects from their allegiance. Upon the same gross neglect, and the necessity of employing an undisciplined and insubordinate rabble, is also charged the rupture with America, to which that neglect led, not indirectly, and as a remote consequence, but by a plain, direct, short route, which might all along have been easily seen and closed up. My lords, I most deeply lament any occurrence as most disastrous and appalling, which can endanger our relations of peace and amity with the United States. But I would not be understood as thinking that this most untoward occurrence will lead to a rupture, though I fear it will exasperate men's minds, and embitter the feelings, already not too kindly, which the last American war left behind it. I know, however, the good sense which, generally speaking, prevails among the people of America—the sound policy which, for the most part, guides the councils of its government. Long may that policy continue!—long may that great Union last! Its endurance is of paramount importance to the peace of the world—to the best interests of humanity—to the general improvement of mankind. Nor do I see how, if any disaster were to happen which should break up the Union, considering the incurably warlike nature of man, the peace of the New World could long be maintained. But in the present case, met, as I have no doubt these wholesome dispositions towards amity will be, by corresponding sentiments on this side of the Atlantic, I cherish the hope, that after discussion, and explanation, and conferences, and negotiations, satisfaction will be yielded where outrage has been offered, redress will not be withholden where injury has been done, and the occasion of quarrel for the present be avoided. But there will not be an end of the consequences that must inevitably follow from this unhappy affair. The public mind will be seriously and generally irritated; the disposition to interfere with us in Canada will become far more difficult to repress; and a government, at all times feeble to control the conduct of individuals, will become wholly impotent against so prevailing a spirit of hostility. All these mischiefs I charge upon the same inexcusable, inexplicable neglect, which has left Canada bare of defence against the progress of discontent, at the moment when your rash, violent, headlong policy, had excited the universal resentment of your American subjects.

But your own faults are, with unparalleled injustice, to be laid to

* Earl of Aberdeen.

the door of the colonists; because you have misgoverned them, and alienated their affections, they are to be punished by the loss of their free constitution. Now, grant even that some portion of them have no justification and no excuse for their conduct,—I ask you how you defend the policy of punishing the whole community for the errors or the offences of a few? I will not here stop to solve the problem, what proportion of a people must sin before you are entitled to visit the whole with penalty and coercion; but I will ask you to recollect the argument used a few days ago by the ministers, when I complained of no troops having been sent to preserve the peace. The outbreak was then represented as a mere trifle; an affray in which but few of the people, but a handful of men, had taken any part—it was confined to a corner of the province—to the banks of the Richelieu alone—while all the rest of the country was peaceable, loyal, and firm. In Upper Canada not a soldier was wanted, and the governor had sent every man away, returning to the inquiry, how many he could spare, the vapouring answer, “All.” Even in Lower Canada, six counties out of the seven were in a state of profound tranquillity, and but a few parishes in the seventh had shown any signs of disaffection at all; almost all else was loyalty, devotion, and zeal.

Such was the ministerial statement last week. Then how do you propose to reward all this loyal devotion and patriotic zeal? By depriving, not the criminal and seditious portion of the people, but the whole community of their rights;—by punishing, not the one county where the peace has been broken, but the other six also, where perfect tranquillity has reigned uninterrupted. And you intend to take away, not only rights that have been abused, not only privileges that have been too rigorously exercised, but all the rights and privileges together, which for near half a century the Canadians have enjoyed. They are told, that for the transgressions of a few the whole liberties of the people are at an end; and my noble friend himself,* a well known friend of liberty, an advocate of popular rights, is to proceed among them in the character of dictator, to enforce the act for establishing among them a despotism never before known in any part of the British dominions. But without stopping to inquire longer into the justice of this policy, let us only ask whether or not it is consistent with our conduct towards other portions of the people—whether or not we treat all parts of the empire in this kind of way? Is it the course we undeviatingly pursue everywhere, through good report and through evil report? Suppose we had to deal with a province situated not three thousand miles off, but almost within sight of our own shores; inhabited, not by half a million, but seven or eight millions of people; not unrepresented in Parliament, but sending over above a hundred zealous and active delegates to speak its wishes and look after its interests; and suppose that of these, a large proportion, say not less than seventy, were the sworn allies, the staunch friends, the thick and thin supporters, the unhesitating, unscrupulous

* Earl of Durham.

voters of the very administration which has been forging fetters for the Canadians—the remote, unfriended, unrepresented Canadians—how would the same government have treated the portion of the empire now called Canada, but which would then have borne another name? Suppose the leader of the seventy faithful adherents, the Mons. Papineau, as he is now termed, the zealous and valuable coadjutor of the ministers, should take up the question of an elective council, should strenuously exert himself for its success—I must here use a European expression to be understood—should agitate for it—would his urgent demands be treated with scorn, and the prayers of his countrymen and followers be rejected with disdain? My noble friend, who represents the ministry elsewhere,* has furnished an answer to all these questions. Quoting from Mr. Fox, and greatly exaggerating that great man's meaning by taking literally what was said loosely, if seriously, my noble friend has laid it down, that in Irish affairs there is but one rule for governing the people; and what do your lordships think that golden rule is? By doing what is right and just? By pursuing the policy which the interests of all require? No such thing! The rule is far simpler than that. By administering, as my noble friend on the cross bench did,† justice tempered with mercy—evinced at all times the most watchful care of the people's interests, mingled with the most undeviating condescension and kindness of demeanour towards their persons—at once endearing himself to them by the frank urbanity of his manners, and taking care that their best interests should be unceasingly promoted—doing them justice, securing them right, but at the same time holding the balance equal, with a firm, a manly hand—and never, for any consideration, abdicating those functions of a government from which its very name is derived? Nothing like it! What, then, is my noble friend, the home secretary's rule for governing a people? Is it to do what you ought by them? to give them what is good for them? to let them have what you ought to give, and nothing more? Oh no such thing! but it is to let them have just what they themselves wish; to do as they bid you—as they, the subjects, bid you, their governors; in a word, to let them save you the trouble of governing them, by leaving them to govern themselves. That is the rule applied to a country which is close by, with six millions of men whom one common sentiment binds together, who follow one concentrated and individual influence, and who send seventy voters to the aid of the ministry in the other House. The rule for dealing with them is, “Give them all they ask: if an elective council, let it be elective; if a life council, be it for life;—just as they please.” But for Canada, far off, thinly peopled, and without the fraction of a member in either House to make its grievances known, or give expression and force to its desires, another rule prevails,—“Refuse all they ask; turn a deaf ear to every complaint; mock them with hopes never to be realized; insult them with rights which, when they dare to use, shall be rudely torn from them; and

* Lord John Russell.

† Marquess of Anglesey.

for abiding by the law, in seeking redress of their wrongs, punish them by the infliction of a dictator and a despotism." We have all seen, or we have read, of the contrast between a parent and a step-mother in the treatment of the child; the contrast between tenderness, self-denial, self-devotion,—and cruelty, self-indulgence, studied neglect. The one exhausts every resource of kindness and conciliation, anticipates all wants, yields to each wish that ought to be granted, studies to prevent offences by judicious training, and to reclaim from error by gentleness alone; nor ever has recourse to punishment until all means of prevention fail, and the safety of the cherished object forces her to do violence to her feelings rather than neglect her duty. But I have known conduct the reverse of all this. Who indeed has not heard of the stepmother—watching for the occasion of quarrel; taking offence at everything and at nothing; fostering any little failing of temper in the child till it ripen into disobedience, and furnish the pretext for inflicting the wished for punishment; alternately too indulgent and too severe; by fits and by caprice harsh and gentle; now flinging to it some plaything, and the instant the child uses it flying into a fury, and snatching it away, and giving vent to anger by punishment or by restraint; now visiting on the offspring the faults of her own mismanagement; and never for an instant pursuing a steady, or a just, or a rational treatment. These things I have witnessed, as who has not? But never have I known an example of contrast so marked, so violent, so outrageous, as between the parental care of Ireland and the stepmother treatment of Canada.

The act of unprecedented oppression which Lord Durham is commissioned to execute, is, I find, explained and illustrated by the publication of the instructions under which he is to be sent out; and when I survey this strange document, I am sure I find it difficult to say whether the tenor of it or the production of it is the most unaccountable. I question if so extraordinary a proceeding altogether has ever yet been witnessed, as the publication of this paper. The ministers have made public in January the orders which they intend to have executed next May. It is one of the great difficulties attending an extended empire, that the orders issued for the government of its distant provinces can hardly ever be executed in the same circumstances in which they are framed, because a considerable time must needs elapse between their being despatched and enforced. But is that a reason for unnecessarily incurring the unavoidable difficulty, by sitting down—did mortal man ever before dream of such a thing!—by sitting down at the colonial office in January, and drawing up the orders in all their detail, which are to be obeyed by the emissary in May or June—when that emissary is not to leave the country before the month of April? How can my noble friend know that he will be of the same mind in April, when Lord Durham is to set sail on his hopeful mission of conciliatory coercion? The measure out of which these resolutions have arisen, has already been changed three or four times over in as many days, if report speak true. First the ministers wavered a little; then they affected to have made up their minds; and

having done so, they no sooner declared that nothing should move them from their fixed purpose, than they suddenly departed from it altogether, and adopted a totally different course, at the dictation of the opposition in the Commons. Hesitation, uncertainty, wavering, delay, mark the whole course of their proceedings. It extends to the noble person who is to execute these projects in Canada. My noble friend is not to set out on his progress towards the spot where disaffection is abroad, and insurrection has broken out, until the weather is fine. While every week is of incalculable importance, April is the time coolly appointed for his sailing, and it may be later. This extreme deliberation should seem to indicate no great apprehension that the colony is in such a state as affords any justification of a measure like the one propounded for its coercion. The noble earl* has mistaken what I formerly said of my noble friend's powers. I never pronounced it as a clear matter, that he should at all events be ordered to grant instantly an elective council. But I did maintain that unless he goes armed with a power of this extent, to be used if he shall see fit, his going is a mockery both of himself and the Canadians; and that neither he nor this country can reap honour from his mission. But no power of this kind, or indeed of any kind, is to be given him. These instructions are from the beginning to the end, inquiry, and nothing else. They set out with stating that it may probably be found necessary to adopt some legislative measures of a comprehensive nature, for effecting a permanent settlement of the Canada question—but what these measures are likely to be there is no intimation given; indeed the plain implication is, that they have not yet been discovered; and the instructions proceed to describe how the information is to be procured on which they may be framed. The committee or convention is to be formed, and then my noble friend is to bring before it various subjects on which he is to ask for their opinion and advice. The first is the matter in dispute between the upper and lower provinces. The next subject of deliberation, it is said, will be furnished by the act of 1791, with a view to examining how its defects may be corrected. Then follow some other heads of inquiry in their order—the mode of defraying the expense of the civil government—the state of the law affecting landed property—the establishment of a court for trying impeachments and appeals. On all these several subjects the new governor is to inquire; and what then? To determine—to act—to do anything that had not been done by his predecessors? No such thing; but to report to the government at home, exactly as they did before him. Why, have they not had reports enough? Had they not the committee of 1828, with its ample investigation and voluminous reports? Had they not the committee of 1834, with such a production of papers from the colonial office as never before was made to any such tribunal, and a report in proportion full to overflowing? The labours of these two committees, sending for all persons, examining all papers, searching into all records, were not deemed sufficient to slake our

* Earl of Aberdeen.

boundless thirst for knowledge, and a commission was despatched to inquire on the spot. They hastened thither, and inquired for years, examined all subjects, differed upon them all, recorded their disputations in long arguments and elaborate protests, remitted the volume that contained the produce of their labours and their wranglings, and put their employers in possession of a whole body of controversy and of decisions, each commissioner generally differing from his colleagues in the views he took of the argument, and frequently also from himself, but all agreeing in the conclusions at which they arrived, by the course of reasoning one way, and deciding another. Will not this satisfy us, insatiable that we are? Can we hope for more argumentation and more discrepancy from one inquiring man than from three? I defy any one, be he armed with powers ever so dictatorial—let him engross in his own person all the powers of his station, and be his own master of the horse into the bargain, to surpass the celebrated inquiry and report of Lord Gosford, and his learned and gallant coadjutors. I had vainly imagined that all the inquiry of the last three years might have been enough to satisfy the greatest appetite for delay and inaction; but I find I was deceived; we are still to falter and pause; the hour for action recedes as we advance; and the mighty measure of abrogating all law, and creating a dictator, ends in sending out one lord to renew the inquiries which had been making for three years under another.

I have uniformly stated my conviction that it is the duty of the government here at length to make up their minds and pursue some intelligible and consistent course towards the colony—above all, that sending Lord Durham thither without the only power which can ever be of the least use towards attaining the object we have in view, is a mere pretence for new delays. The alarm expressed at that power by the noble earl* is to me incomprehensible. An elective council, he says, means the severance of the colony. I have always held this to be a benefit and no loss, provided it can be effected in peace, and leave only feelings of kindness on either side. But I deny that the giving an elective council can possibly produce such a consequence. Men commit a great and a palpable mistake when, arguing from the analogy of the Parliament of England, they transfer to Canada the ideas connected with our upper House. In the colony there is no aristocracy, nor anything like an aristocracy—consequently the materials of an upper house are there wholly wanting. But a yet more remarkable difference arises from the relation of colonial dependency. Why is this House in which we sit necessary for our limited monarchy? It is because the Crown would, without its interposition, come into conflict with the people, represented in the Commons. The monarch has no revenues but what he derives from the votes of that lower House; if, then, he were to exercise his veto upon bills, all supplies would be stopt; and the monarchy could not survive the shock were it often repeated, were not its violence mitigated by this upper House being

* Earl of Aberdeen.

interposed between the other two branches. This House, by the influence which the Crown has in it, by its natural leaning towards the court, and by its aversion to the extremes of popular opinion, relieves the sovereign from the perilous office of refusing the measures sometimes pressed upon both by the representatives of the people. But the state of things in a colony is essentially different. There the executive government is not altogether dependent upon the supplies voted by the Commons—there the Commons have no more absolute power over the rest of the government than they would have here, if Hanover, or some other dependency of the Crown, yielded a revenue of twenty millions a-year, which could defray such expenses as the Parliament might refuse to authorize. Consequently in the colony, the governor has no difficulty in rejecting bills, and exposes the constitution to no shock by the exercise of his veto. He wants no upper house to do for him what he can safely do himself, and to deaden the concussion occasioned by a collision between him and the Commons. Were the colonial council then elective, there would none of the effects ensue which must follow from making this House a representative of the people like the other. Were we chosen and sent here by the same body that elects the Commons, any one must see that the only consequence would be, our having a House of Commons divided into two sections instead of one, sitting in two rooms, and passing bills through nine or ten stages instead of four or five: the government would be wholly changed, and a pure democracy substituted in its stead. In the colony, the reform of the council or its total abolition would not alter one jot the nature of the government, or impede its working for an hour. The Commons might refuse supplies because the governor rejected bills—each party would for awhile stand out against the other; in the end a middle course would be resorted to, each party giving up a little and gaining the rest; and the supplies of the mother country, administered by her Parliament, would be forthcoming whenever the sense of the government and people of England went along with the colonial executive to overcome any very unreasonable and pertinacious resistance of the House respecting the colonial people. Unable then to discover the least danger from the change so much desired by all the Canadians, I deeply lament the shortsighted and inefficient policy of sending out a new emissary without the power of granting it, or even of entertaining the question; and I remain decidedly of opinion, that whether we regard his own credit and honour, or the interest of the country and the colony, he had far better not go there at all, than proceed with mutilated powers upon a hopeless errand.

The colonial experience, my lords, of the Spanish monarchy, fertile as it is in lessons of wisdom upon all subjects, is singularly so upon a question of this kind. There once broke out, as you are aware, a revolt so formidable, and so extensive, involving the whole of the most valuable of the settlements of Spain, that it is still known at the distance of three centuries as the great rebellion. I allude, of course, to the revolt of the Pizarros in Peru, compared with which, were the war in Canada to rage with tenfold fury, it would be a mere nothing

for danger and difficulty. The events of that famous passage have been recorded by the illustrious historian, my revered kinsman, in that spirit of deep reflection for which he was renowned, and with a charm of style hardly exceeded by his celebrated narrative of Columbus's voyage, which it is difficult to read with a dry eye. The rebels had been eminently successful on all points; the revolt had raged for above a year, and had wrapt all Peru in the flames of civil war. At the head of his hardy and adventurous veterans, Pizarro had met the Spanish troops, and overthrown them in many pitched battles. The Viceroy had himself been defeated, taken, and put to death; the seat of government was in the hands of the insurgents; and a combined system of revolt had been universally established, to the extinction of all lawful authority. In such an extremity, the Emperor Charles, a prince of vast experience, of practised wisdom in the councils both of peace and war; a ruler, whose vigour never suffered him to falter,—saw that there remained but one course to pursue. He resolved to send out a person with ample powers of negotiation and of command; and his choice fell upon Pedro de la Gasca; who had, though in no higher station than councillor of the inquisition, distinguished himself by his ability and success in several delicate negotiations. He was recommended to the office by an enlarged capacity hardly to be surpassed,—an insinuating address,—manners singularly courteous to all,—a temper the most conciliatory and bland,—above all, a rare disinterestedness and self-denial in whatever concerned himself, and a singular devotion to his public duties. Of this he early gave an unequivocal indication, in peremptorily refusing the offer of higher rank in the church, which the Emperor pressed upon him with the purpose of increasing his weight and influence in the arduous service entrusted to his hands; "But," says the historian, "while he discovered such disinterested moderation in all that related personally to himself, he demanded his official powers in a very different tone. He insisted, as he was to be employed in a country so remote from the seat of government, where he could not have recourse to his sovereign for new instructions on any emergency, and as the whole success of his negotiations must depend upon the confidence which the people with whom he had to treat could place in the extent of his power, that he ought to be invested with unlimited authority; that his jurisdiction must reach to all persons, and to all causes; that he must be empowered to pardon, to punish, or to reward, as circumstances might require; that in case of resistance from the malcontents, he might be authorized to reduce them by force of arms, to levy troops for that purpose, and to call for assistance from the governments of all the Spanish settlements in America." Powers like these seemed to the men of mere precedent in the colonial office of Madrid, impossible to be granted to any subject,—they were the inalienable attributes of the prerogative, according to these official authorities—"But the Emperor's views," says the historian "were more enlarged. As from the nature of his employment, Gasca must be entrusted with discretionary power in some points, and all his efforts might prove ineffectual, if he

was circumscribed in any one particular, (as, for example, the granting of an elective council,) Charles scrupled not to invest him with authority to the full extent of his demand. Highly satisfied (he adds) with this fresh proof of his master's confidence, Gasca hastened, (*much cheering attended the mention of this word*)—he hastened his departure, and without either money or troops, set out to quell a formidable rebellion." The result is well known, and it was conformable to the vigour and the wisdom that presided over these preparations. Gasca arrived in Peru without any suite, or any pomp whatever; he put in action the resources of his genius for negotiation; dividing his adversaries by the justice of his proceedings, winning over many of all parties by the engaging suavity and mingled dignity of his manners, never making any sacrifice to temper or to selfishness, of his arduous and important duty, but gaining everywhere friends to his mission, while he hardly left an enemy to his person. His bold and uncourtly antagonist perceived that he was undone, if further time were given for the practice of diplomatic arts, alike strange to his nature and his habits. He rushed to the field, his proper element, and to those arms which were the only arts he knew. To his dismay he found that he had to cope with one whose universal genius for affairs fitted him for following up in action the councils of his provident sagacity. Gasca suddenly disclosed the result of the preparations which he had been making, while occupied in negotiating with the leaders of the revolt, and reclaiming the victims of their artifices. He equipped a fleet, met the cruizers of Pizarro, and captured them every where. He took the field against the veteran conquerors of the new world; he met their chief, overthrew him in a pitched battle, made him prisoner, put him to death with his principal accomplices, restored peace and order to the whole province, and gave back to the Spanish crown, rather than kept in it, the brightest of its jewels. To complete the glory of this great man, already so brilliant both in council and in arms, there wanted but one crowning passage, which should bestow upon him a yet higher fame, by showing the genius that inspired his conduct, eclipsed by the virtue that governed it. Nor was this proof wanting. Master, by the fortune of the war, and by his unlimited powers, of the whole forfeitures of the rebellion, he distributed a far greater mass of wealth, in money, and mines, and land, and palaces, than was ever by any absolute potentate bestowed upon his followers or his favourites; and reserving not the fraction of a farthing for himself or his connexions, he retired to Europe, and rendered up his trust, leaving to his grateful sovereign the payment of the few debts which he had contracted, and which his poverty disabled him from discharging. His reception by his country and his prince was all that might be expected from public gratitude for unparalleled services, and from unbounded admiration of the highest and most various capacity. But he retired into the privacy of his former life, and passed (says Robertson) "the remainder of his days in the tranquillity of seclusion, respected by his country, honoured by his sovereign, and beloved by all."

Having, my lords, called your attention to the lessons which this

memorable passage of colonial history presents to the government, as peculiarly applicable to the circumstances of the existing crisis, I will not any longer stop to dwell upon a picture, which, I fear, offers to the eye only sad contrasts in all its material features between the capacity and the vigour of former and of present times. And here, too, I willingly retire from the contemplation of the whole subject—painful to view in every respect—lamentable in some of its parts—disgraceful in others. My closing words, my parting advice are, to retrace your steps, and do justice. Let the government make the restoration of kindly feeling the main object of all their endeavours. To compass this let them go all lengths, and out of their way, in negotiating with the disaffected, and in ruling the province. Let them largely mingle mercy in the administration of its affairs. Above all, never let them listen to those who would persuade them, like the noble earl,* that what might have been rightly granted at one time it is dishonourable to give now that the suppliant has flown to arms, and become a rebel. If those concessions were wrong before, so are they wrong still, and I call upon you firmly to refuse them,—but if it ever would have been just and politic to yield them, be you well assured that nothing has happened to make it less wise, and less right now, and the fame of England never will be tarnished by doing her duty. Make that your rule and your guide, and you may laugh to scorn the empty babblers who would upbraid you with the weakness of yielding to armed petitioners; you will show them that the concession is not made to the force of arms, but to the irresistible power of justice and of right. I devoutly pray that the end of all may be contentment and peace—that contentment and that peace without which outstretched empire is but extended weakness—which, if you shall not restore, all your victories in the council, in the legislature, in the field, will be won in vain—which, if you do restore, you may defy the world in arms, and despise its slanders as well as its threats.

LORD MELBOURNE having expressed his satisfaction with the prudent advice offered by Lord Brougham, and in the soundness and wisdom of which he entirely concurred—proceeded to complain of the acerbity which characterized other parts of his speech;—said he had long perceived—had been aware three years ago that sooner or later it must come to this—that he felt thankful for his support in 1835, for his abstinence in 1836, and for his qualified opposition and partial support in 1837; adding that he felt no irritation in consequence of the different and more harsh course he now pursued,—and which no doubt arose from no personal considerations, but solely from public spirit, and from feelings of a patriotic kind.†

LORD BROUGHAM.—I purposely abstain on this occasion from going

* Earl of Aberdeen.

† Lord Melbourne, in referring to the proceedings of Gasca and the Peruvian rebellion, designated Dr. Robertson as a florid, lively, and fanciful historian; a description, perhaps, as notoriously inapplicable as it is truly original, of that great writer, the chasteness of whose style is equal to the admitted accuracy and impartiality of his narrative.

farther into the personal remarks of the noble viscount, because I will not thus interrupt the discussion of a great public question. But when he compares and contrasts my conduct towards the government this session with that which I formerly held, he utterly and notoriously forgets the whole of the facts. Has he forgotten, can he have forgotten, that last May I both urged the same charges and recorded them on your journals? I even pursued the self-same course of argument which has, I observe, to-night given him so great offence. He speaks of "acerbity." A person supposed to have used bitter remarks is perhaps not a judge of the comparative "acerbity" of his different observations—nor is that person, possibly, against whom they have been employed. But I venture to say, that of all I said this night, the portion which he felt the most bitter, and to which, be it observed in passing, he made not the least allusion, was my comparison of his conduct towards unrepresented Canada and well-represented Ireland. Well,—last May I drew the very same comparison, and nearly in the same terms—made the same quotations from the ministerial speeches in the Commons—and recorded the substance of the comparison in my protest. My lords, I indignantly and peremptorily deny that the motive or principle of my conduct is changed. But I know that the changed conduct of others has compelled me to oppose them, in order that I may not change my own principles. Do the ministers desire to know what will restore me to their support, and make me once more fight zealously in their ranks, as I once fought with them against the majority of your lordships? I will tell them at once! Let them retract their declaration against reform, delivered the first night of this session, and their second declaration—by which (to use the noble viscount's phrase) they *exacerbated* the first; or let them, without any retraction, only bring forward liberal and constitutional measures—they will have no more zealous supporter than myself. But, in the meantime, I now hurl my defiance at his head—I repeat it—I hurl at his head the defiance—I defy him to point out any, the slightest, indication of any one part of my public conduct having, even for one instant, been affected, in any manner of way, by feelings of a private and personal nature, or been regulated by any one consideration, except the sense of what I owe to my own principles, and to the interests of the country!

S P E E C H

ON THE

AFFAIRS OF LOWER CANADA.

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

FEBRUARY 8, 1838.

WHEN I reflect on the position which I have occupied in this House during all the previous stages of this measure and of the proceedings connected with it in the last session of Parliament, and compare it with the altered position in which I stand this day, I observe a contrast between the two which is at once very remarkable in itself, and, to me, pleasing and encouraging in no ordinary degree. I can no longer be said to stand here alone in denouncing this measure. I can no longer complain of being left unsupported in my opposition to its tyranny and injustice. I am no longer fated, alone, to have levelled at me, sometimes the lighter missiles of sarcasm and taunt, and sometimes the heavier artillery of statement, seldom, if ever, approximating to the shape or even semblance of argument. I no longer am to have all those launched at my single and unsupported head; for I now enjoy the gratification of knowing that I have lived to see truth make its way, and to find myself supported by some of the most respectable members of your lordships' House in what I should formerly have reckoned in this place, as it almost always was out of doors and in the other House of Parliament, the most hopeless part of my whole views. And if to be supported at all,—if to be supported in denouncing injustice, in defending the law, and in standing up for the constitution of England be grateful to me to-night,—and the more grateful it is, because quite new,—how is that satisfaction heightened when I find that, beside the respectability of those supporters in point of talents, experience, and character, who have lamented, as the one did, the arbitrary and unconstitutional nature of the measure, and who actually, as the other did, announced a determination to vote against it for its injustice,—those two peers have both descended from and bear the honoured names of the greatest luminaries of the law,—two of the strongest props of justice who ever adorned this country, leav-

ing to their descendants a prouder inheritance than the titles which they won for themselves and their posterity, in their own inexhaustible love for the liberties of their country, their fast adherence to its laws, and their abhorrence of injustice and oppression. I may well feel pleased with this change in my position. I shall now no longer be denounced by sneers, as the partisan of rebels, nor, by implication, as the encourager of rebellion; no longer be charged as taking part with revolt, nor be designated, by plain implication, as something like Cataline, for that I had rushed out of this House, as the senator of ancient Rome rushed from the senate, after he had delivered himself of a long, and apparently, by its effects, an irritating and successful speech against the great orator of those times,—the Lord Glenelg of that day. Thus encouraged and protected, I may well persevere in denouncing the gross injustice of this measure,—a measure outraging every principle of equity,—confounding the innocent with the guilty,—making no distinction between the wrong-doer and those who have aided in repelling him,—subjecting the whole province to the loss of its liberties, because a few parishes in a single county have attempted an unsuccessful rebellion;—thus punishing as well those who, instead of revolting, alone enabled the government to put that revolt down,—and without whose aid they never would have succeeded in putting it down,—punishing them with the same loss of their liberties, which it is said the legislature has a right, in what is called the exercise of a just severity, to inflict on the rebels themselves.

But, my lords, we are now told that the delay observable throughout the whole of these proceedings, which began in March, 1837, which continued in April, which ended in May,—a delay still perceivable in the month of June, and which may further be traced through the whole of the remainder of the year,—we are now told that this indecision and delay were not accidental, as some have presumed to imagine; that they were not unintentional, as others might suppose; that they arose not from any defect in vigour and natural activity, as a third class of reasoners might fancy; that they were not attributable, as the noble earl opposite charitably surmised the other night, to an inveterate infirmity of purpose—an incurable habit of wavering and inaction—no such thing. It is all design, says the noble marquess;* it is all virtue, it is all system, it is all the consequence of that natural but invincible repugnance which my noble friend† has felt, to enter upon any course which could be thought to savour of strong measures—of unconstitutional measures—of rash measures—of measures severe towards the colony; it is all because of his reluctance to encroach on the people's privileges—to suspend their constitutional rights. It may be so; there is nothing wonderful now-a-days. The longer one lives the less one wonders. It is just on the verge of possibility, that those who impeach and those who defend this vile measure—friend and foe, combatant, by-stander, and looker-on—have all been deceived and all mistaken the intentions with which her Majesty's ministers have propounded it. Instead of a fault, the

* Marquess of Lansdowne.

† Lord Glenelg.

bill may be a perfection; instead of an arbitrary and oppressive, it may be a mild, wise, and just policy, which dictates the present conduct of the administration. Is it so? It would be odd if it were true. Certainly nobody could have suspected it; and if my noble friend the president of the council had not given the sanction of his grave and weighty authority to such a view of the matter, I should have been disposed to say—I will not use a harsh expression—that it was utterly impossible for any person of common sense to believe it, or of decorous character to speak it, or of ordinary powers of face, to hear it proposed and keep his countenance. But if such reluctance is shown by these constitutional men to adopt harsh proceedings, ought they not to have been reluctant to pass the resolutions of last year? That was the time for being reluctant; but there was no hesitation then; they produced them on the 6th of March; and having once plunged, they were committed for ever. The time, it appears, for reluctance and delay was after all the mischief had been done. What is the fact? It is precisely three weeks back that they applied themselves vigorously to enforce the laws and to maintain justice; so that, from the argument of my noble friend it would appear they were excessively harsh and violent, when they ought to have deliberated; and they were excessively slow, very reluctant, and most undecided, when they ought to have adopted a course, bold, vigorous, and decided. I will venture to predict that the whole proceeding will be continued in the same style in which it commenced. If it were reluctance that was shown in the beginning, your lordships may depend upon it that you will find the same reluctance continued to the end. The disinclination which has been felt to bring in the present measure will show itself in sending over so many thousand bayonets to carry it into execution. And truly, I now begin to understand why that which I before complained of has taken place. I asked, three weeks ago, how it happened, if it be necessary to send out a dictator to destroy the constitution of Lower Canada, because some few parishes in it have been guilty of irregular proceedings, that, instead of going over immediately, the noble emissary delays so long in faring forth to the place of his destination, waiting, it is said, for fine weather, as if rebellion looked to the almanack—as if state affairs depended on the barometer—as if the assembling of parish committees, district committees, and central committees were governed by certain times and seasons of the year, as in ancient days, when there was a regular suspension of arms on the approach of frost, and the campaign was not renewed till the second or third swallow came hovering around the camp. That observance, even in war, having been long since dispensed with, I was at a loss to conceive why, in these critical and pressing negotiations, it should be thought necessary to go by the weathergage. I was at a loss to conceive why my noble friend the noble earl* was not to reach the seat of his government till the month of May or June. The light has now shone in upon me; I begin to comprehend it all. For surely, if her Majesty's ministers feel a strong repugnance to this mea-

* Earl of Durham.

sure,—if they are afflicted with constitutional qualms on the occasion of its passing,—how much stronger must be the repugnance, how much more powerful the qualms of my noble friend, a great professor of free opinions, one whose language has always been so much more decided than theirs in support of popular rights and privileges, and who is to enforce the tyranny that we only legislate? It is as plain as path to parish church that the reluctance in him who is to execute is much greater than in those who framed the bill. He cannot be persuaded to go till he has tarried so long as to satisfy the people of Canada of his extreme repugnance to the mission; so that when he arrives there he will have made it manifest to all mankind in the province, that his consent has been wrung from him like gout of blood to administer an unconstitutional measure, and go out for a harsh and tyrannical purpose. Nay, I should little marvel were his qualms to get the better of him, and keep him at home altogether. To return, however, to the real matter under the consideration of your lordships.

My noble friend,* who has been listened to, as he always is, in proportion as he deserves to be on all subjects, but on no matter more than this,—my noble friend differs from the noble baron sitting near him, in his opinion as to the course which ought to be taken with a view to the common object of settling these important matters of difference and restoring peace in Canada. My noble friend says, that the settlement cannot be effected in this country, but must be accomplished in the colony. Does not my noble friend perceive, that though his opinion may be sound in itself, it is not even the shadow of an argument in defence of the present bill? My noble friend is supposing, if he does mean to use that argument in defence of the measure, that the present bill gives the noble earl the full power of supplying, on the spot, the measures that may be found necessary to an arrangement. Nothing can be more wide of the fact. It not only gives him no such power, but it is not directed to that point of the compass. It is, indeed, directed to the diametrically opposite point, to the point of inquiry. Judging from what we have seen, we must conclude that the inevitable result of the measure will be, not settlement, but inquiry and delay. Instead of sending out Lord Durham to settle the question, the measure and his mission will leave it more unsettled than ever. The act, not satisfied with leaving out full powers, positively ties up his hands. Whatever new powers he may possess, will be not only not authorized by the act, but contrary to the act, and such as he cannot receive legally from any quarter, nor execute without a breach of the law. His instructions are, “inquire, inquire, inquire; report, report, report.” It is one thing, therefore, to ask me to agree with my noble friend, who wants an emissary with full powers to settle the dispute on the spot,—for he says, the dispute should be settled on the spot, not here;—and quite another thing to call upon me to approve of this bill, which gives no such powers, which ties up the hands of the agent, and which renders it totally impracticable for him, unless he violate the provisions of the act and the orders of his employers, to settle any

* Lord Ashburton.

one of the questions, or smooth in any manner of way the thorny difficulties which beset his path. It is the mere inefficiency of this plan, the utter discrepancy which exists between the powers of the bill and the object to be accomplished, of which I complained, when I last entered upon this painful, tiresome, and all but hopeless discussion. In order to make an end of the dispute, even on the principle of my noble friend opposite,—in order to have the bare possibility of getting the question settled amicably and satisfactorily to both sides of the water,—it is necessary we should send a governor or negotiator with full powers, not only to treat, but to grant as well as treat. But here you are hardly giving even power to treat; you have told Lord Durham to inquire; and, also, comparing the speech of my noble friend the colonial secretary with the bill itself, you have disclosed what your notions are as to the speediness with which (the prescribed course being pursued) a settlement may be arrived at. How long does the bill say Lord Durham is to be there, for the purpose of completing the inquiry? Two years. Two years, therefore, according to the framers of this measure, are the period during which inquiry shall last; and until the end of those two years, the legislature of the mother country, which can alone adjust the question, is to be understood as not being in a state, as not having the capacity to settle it.

LORD GLENELG.—Two years are the *maximum*.

LORD BROUGHAM.—My noble friend says two years are the *maximum*; but when I recollect the constitutional repugnance of the noble lord to all harsh proceeding, as displayed through these debates, and his habitual disposition always to do things on the latest possible day,—his rule being, never to do anything to-day which can be put off till to-morrow,—I cannot but think that the *maximum* and *minimum* are likely in his case to be coincident quantities.

But, again, I ask, in common justice and consistency, why should we punish a whole people for the offences or errors of a few? It is perfectly evident that the executive council contemplate no such measure as this: that is demonstrable by the quotation which has been read by the noble baron. Is the bill, then, likely to work the purposes of conciliation? That question is answered already. Whatever information government may wish to have—whatever further knowledge they may desire to obtain by the intervention of Lord Durham, for two years or two months, on this head,—no further inquiry, no further knowledge is necessary upon this point. Unhappily, we know by anticipation the fruits this bill will produce, by the fruits of the resolutions of last May. If the resolutions taking the power of the purse, seizing the strong chest, and spoliating the money of the Canadians, because they, exercising the right we gave them, refused to give it up voluntarily themselves—if they produced first discontent, then disaffection, then revolt, and then actual rebellion, (and who will have the hardihood to deny that all these things have been the consequences of those resolutions?—can it be believed that this bill—(and the resolutions are mere water compared with the drug which you are now commending to the same lips)—can it be expected but that this bill, which carries the principle of the resolutions a thousand times further

—which sends out a dictator, with a commission to rule over the inhabitants, without a single representative, without check or control in the body of the colony;—that this most nauseous potion will be swallowed by those who turned with disgust from the mere ditch water of the resolutions? Good God! does any man profess to be sanguine enough to maintain, for a moment, that whereas the former resolutions occasioned revolt, the present bill—I will not use harsh language, nor will I pretend to prophesy—the present bill, of all measures, will be found to pour balm into the wounds which are rankling from the sore infliction of the resolutions of last May? I shall be grievously disappointed if my noble friend ever proceeds to Canada on such a mission, with such powers, with his hands so tied up as they are by the present bill,—powerful only to hurt and to annoy and to insult; but impotent to heal or to soothe. Grievously, however, as I shall be disappointed if my noble friend consents to go forth on such an errand,—as an angel of wrath and with no healing on his wings,—I own I shall not be disappointed, although I must feel grieved (as who will not?) if the consequences of the measure with which you are following up the resolutions that began the mischief, are such as we shall all have occasion most deeply to deplore. The bill seems framed as if to prevent my noble friend from exercising any power. I will give your lordships an accurate, though it must be a compendious, sketch of this measure.

My noble friend is to make for the colony laws in a council of his own choosing; he is to make laws for the colony, but those are to be such as the Canadian assembly, whose functions are suspended, would have been entitled to make if this bill had not passed. One of the restrictions on the power of the assembly,—a restriction imposed by the act of 1791,—is, that no law can be made by the colonial legislature which is repugnant to or inconsistent with the act itself. Consequently, here is one fetter. My noble friend cannot make any law not consistent with the act of 1791. I presume that this fundamental but most restrictive provision of the bill is intentional. I know that it has received the consideration of most accurate and experienced lawyers: and with the professional resources at the command of the government, I have no doubt they have taken care that the bill should be so framed as to accomplish the objects which they have in view. But this is not all: my noble friend is not allowed to make any law that trenches on any act of the Imperial Parliament, or any act of the Canadian legislature, nor has he the privilege of repealing or altering any act of either British or Colonial Parliament. Your lordships will recollect the lumping description of the powers of legislation which my noble friend, the first time he addressed your lordships on the subject, informed you he was to possess. He professed that he was to enjoy an extent of power such as had never before been conferred on any man; but, instead of having more than ordinary powers, I doubt if ever a man was sent before on such a mission with so many restrictions and with so few powers. There is very little to empower, but very much to tie up and restrain, from the beginning to the end of this very singular act of Parliament, which he so pleasantly fancied

was to make him all but omnipotent, and which really makes him next to impotent. Then follows a whole list of exceptions as to money, as to electoral districts, as to the right of voting, as to the functions of the assembly, as to the time and mode of calling it together, even as to dividing the unions of parishes, and counties, and districts, for the purposes of elections. With respect to all these subjects the whole of this ground is tabooed against Lord Durham's powers,—those high, ample, unparalleled powers, as he fondly believed them to be, and somewhat grandly described them. Lord Durham is to be confined, trammelled, and cooped up within the simple narrow sphere to which I have already directed your lordships' attention: in truth, he is to see, and examine, and report, and nothing more. But there is another point to which I must allude. The laws which Lord Durham may make are to last, according to the provisions of this bill, not till 1840, when the constitution is to be restored, but for two years afterwards, till 1842. This question then arises, which, I hope, has been well considered, and can be clearly answered:—What will be the relative positions of Lord Durham and the revived assemblies? Will the revived assemblies have the power of repealing or altering the ordinances of Lord Durham made during those two years? I have read the act without being able to form a satisfactory opinion whether those ordinances might be repealed or altered by the assemblies when their suspended animation ceases, and when they come into life again in 1840. It rather seems as if Lord Durham's laws should continue in force four years and a half,—that is, till 1842; but there is no provision of this nature, "that they shall continue valid unless altered or repealed by the assemblies."

I look on this measure as carrying within it, not the promise or earnest of peace and the chance of conciliation, but rather as sowing the seeds of war. I am not, therefore, very nice in examining its features, in surveying its lineaments, in looking to see whether there is any particular symmetry, or any great consistency, in the structure of its parts. I cannot help thinking, however, that when another infant, the origin of an Iliad of woes, was produced to the gossips of Troy, and when they looked on the interesting babe, they must have found much more beauty in it—(which is said to have afterwards been thought a compensation for all they had suffered)—than our gossips in these days, the three presidents,—he of the council,* he of this House,† and he of the board of trade,‡ are likely to do when they come, as I hope they will, to-morrow, to survey the offspring they are now ushering into the world. The symmetry, the consistency, and harmony of its parts will be found by no means remarkable. I shall offer no amendment. I take no interest in the bantling whatever; I view it with abhorrence; I regard it with feelings of disgust; I consider it a hateful progeny; I will lend it no helping hand whatever: if I did, I believe I should receive no thanks from those most nearly connected with it. I will examine it no farther; but I am satisfied of one thing—if its long delay had been lengthened out still farther, it would have

* Lord Lansdowne.

† Lord Cottenham.

‡ Mr. P. Thomson.

been happy for this country, and happy for the colony. But I hope, before it is finally assented to, its features will be compared with the views I have just now flung out, in order that the other mischief may not take place to which I have shortly adverted, of not only sending out this measure with all its faults on its head, but stirring up a legal controversy, raising doubts and difficulties in respect of legality, to make our other proceedings still more intolerable.

The noble lord* opposite alluded to the policy and wisdom of establishing colonies at a time when the exclusive system of foreign powers shut out this country from commercial intercourse with their settlements. This is a subject to which, in early life, I have paid very close attention, and it has always been my opinion, that the system of colonizing is highly favourable to commerce and national improvement in a certain stage of society. I hold the planting of colonies to be in the highest degree politic and wise in a commercial state, not merely in times when all other nations are doing the same thing, or adopting an exclusive system, and preventing you from commerce with their colonies, so as you can have no share in the colonial trade unless you have colonies of your own,—but also as an outlet for, and a stimulant to, industry, in early periods of society, when those stimulants and outlets are so few.

There is another and a most important benefit which colonial possessions confer upon a nation. The estates acquired there by the inhabitants of the mother country add, incalculably, by their revenues imparted, to the wealth of that parent state. Men, in their youth, go to push their fortune in the colony; they succeed; they acquire property there; they return to their native land; they continue to draw the income from their colonial estates; and they acquire landed property at home, generally unimproved, which they cultivate by means of their colonial wealth. This intercourse is chiefly, and, indeed, almost entirely, maintained in the case of such colonies as the West Indian islands,—for our continental possessions in North America have always attracted emigrants who permanently change their abode, and on leaving their homes for the new world never think of returning to the old. But the influence of West Indian wealth upon the resources and the improvement of this island is very manifest. You shall go to certain districts, especially in the northern parts of Great Britain, where, by the very names of the seats and the farms, you can distinctly trace that the capital which has cultivated those valleys, and covered the once barren heath with crops and with gardens, was derived from the plantations of the Antilles, or from the savannahs of South America. The advantages of such establishments are very different from those derived from colonies like those of North America, where there is no interchange of population, no non-resident proprietors; and where, consequently, the benefits are confined to commercial intercourse. The West Indian colonies are, for the like reasons, never likely to become independent, nor is it very likely to prove for our

* Lord Ashburton.

advantage that they should be. It is far otherwise with continental settlements, like the United States, or our remaining North American territories. These could not, in their earlier stages, exist without our support; and in our earlier state of society and of traffic, their dependence has been of great value. But when the interchange of produce and manufactures furnishes the stimulants to industry and accumulation in plenty,—when the colonies we have established are capable of standing alone,—when they are fit for the task of self-government,—when they can do without our aid,—as happily by the eternal decrees of Providence, in the course appointed for art as well as nature, and society as well as art, we can also do without them, the wants and the powers of each happily coinciding,—the one being able to leave our care, and we able to carry on our commercial and other concerns without their aid—then it is, that we reap the rich harvest of all our former pains and tuition; for then we secure a natural ally,—a natural market—a people whose circumstances are such that they want what we have in superfluity, and produce in superfluous abundance what we want—the best definition of market profitable for both parties,—and, above all, they, having the same blood and origin—the same constitutional laws—the same language—the same manners—will be more or less our natural friends, our natural allies, and our natural customers; from those physical and moral relationships, those natural ties, which no severance of mere political connection can ever cut through or even much loosen. It is the great benefit of colonial establishments that, in different degrees and kinds, during their infancy, they help us as well as we help them, and, in their maturity, when separation becomes inevitable, the two independent states continue to help each other, in an increased proportion. See the prodigious increase of our intercourse with independent America, compared with that intercourse during our former political and proprietary empire over it, and you will be fully convinced of this. But let us remember that all these great advantages, for a long course of years at least, may depend on the temperate manner in which we quit the partnership, and the feelings in which the long subsisting tie is severed. If those feelings are of animosity,—if wounds are left rankling on both sides,—then we can no longer expect anything like the natural, and what in all other circumstances, under the dispensation of a wise and just policy should be the inevitable, advantages of the future intercourse with the newly independent state. My prayer is, that we may so order our policy with respect to North America, as, when the hour of separation does arrive,—and sooner or later, by common consent, come it must,—we may be found to have done nothing that shall leave wounds to rankle, but that the relation of colony and mother country—the relation of temporary dependence and sovereignty, on either hand, ceasing in the course of nature, other relations may be substituted of one free state with another,—not enemies but friends,—and in the honest emulation of rivals, running together the great race of social improvement, with an emulation which the high descent of the new state makes her worthy of sustaining with the old.

S P E E C H O N T H E C I V I L L I S T .

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS,

WEDNESDAY, DEC. 20, 1837.

P R E F A C E

TO THE

S E P A R A T E E D I T I O N O F T H I S S P E E C H .

THIS speech is published separately in order to bring under the consideration of the people of this country, when they come to reflect seriously upon the late proceedings in Parliament, what it is that has been done with respect to the royal establishment, and in what manner this has been done. There is also reason to believe that many who bore a part in those proceedings were not fully aware of the state of the question. This is almost unavoidable when an important measure is carried through all its stages with great despatch; more especially when men entrusted with legislative authority, act under the influence of excited feelings, and do not give themselves time to reflect, that the funds upon which their generosity is exercised belong to others, for whom they are only trustees.

S P E E C H .

ALTHOUGH I do not rise with the desire of opposing my noble friend's* motion, so as to take the sense of the House upon it, I am nevertheless desirous of calling the attention of your lordships to the manner in which this bill has been framed and has passed through the other House of Parliament, with the view of ascertaining how far a due consideration has been given to so important a subject, and of seeing if there do not exist at this hour substantial reasons for adopting a course different from the one that has been pursued. Against the concluding remarks of my noble friend, I will neither waste your lordship's time nor degrade myself by making any defence. I am sure he did not mean to throw out anything against me personally, or against those who may agree with me, as if by taking a different view of this measure we showed ourselves less attached than himself to the established constitution of the country, and were, to use his own expression, "insane" enough to put in hazard the benefits which it bestows, by seeking after some other untried form of government. There is no question of the kind raised by the present discussion; all are agreed that a limited monarchy such as ours, is better adapted to the present state of society in this country, and the existing circumstances of the European world—more calculated to secure the great end of all government, the happiness of the people—than those commonwealths which have been established in other regions where they are greatly preferred even to our constitution, as being better suited to the wants and opinions of the community. Thus much my noble friend's somewhat needless observations have made it necessary to say, lest any one should fancy that they conveyed against those who disapprove of the present scheme, an insinuation of fondness for revolutionary doctrines, or a disposition to seek changes of a sweeping and dangerous kind.

I will now come to the matter before us, from which I have been drawn aside, and I begin by assuming that your lordships are consulted upon the present occasion with the intention of really asking your opinion, and not as a mere form and empty ceremony; that you are appealed to as a deliberative body; that you are called upon to exercise your judgment, and that you have the duty laid upon you of exercising your unquestionable right to give the whole subject a full consideration. Now I am under the necessity of declaring, both that I can discover no sufficient reason for adopting the principle of this

* Lord Melbourne.

bill, and making prospectively an arrangement of the civil list which may last, as we all hope it will, fifty or sixty years; and that, even if the principle was a sound one, and it were fit to make such an arrangement, we have not before us the information which might have been communicated, to which we were clearly entitled, and without which it is utterly impossible to deny that we must, upon every view of the matter, be legislating in the dark. Nor has my noble friend urged a single argument to the contrary. I agree in all the argumentative part of his speech; I dispute not one of his historical details; but neither his reasonings nor his facts have any bearing upon the question before us. Thus I nowise doubt, nor do I believe any one can be found who will doubt, that a very beneficial change was effected at the restoration, when the monarch, instead of bearing the whole expense of the government, and enjoying the feudal and other hereditary revenues of the Crown, gave up these to the country, and received as an equivalent an income out of the taxes. No one has ever doubted for these last 150 years, that this was an improvement upon the former usage; and I cannot help thinking that my noble friend gave himself an unnecessary trouble, when he laboured to dissuade your lordships from recurring to the ancient feudal method of supporting the monarchy. So too of the change in our financial arrangements introduced after the revolution, and which led to the necessity of Parliament being regularly held every year, so that the whole business of the government must be transacted there. That this, like the former, was a great improvement, I take for granted nobody will be inclined to dispute. Then again as to the third of those changes dwelt upon by the noble viscount, the plan of separating the expense of the royal household from the other charges of the civil government, first adopted at the accession of his late Majesty, I am not aware that there exists in any quarter the least disposition to deny that this too was an improvement upon the old method of mixing the whole expenses together, and classing them all, how various soever their nature might be, under the name of civil list—a method equally inconvenient and indeed detrimental both to the Crown and country. Upon all these points, I must profess my entire acquiescence in everything that has fallen from my noble friend; and to these points, his speech was wholly confined; but the matter in dispute between us, namely, the proposed arrangement, is left altogether untouched by him. I have heard not one word in support of the sums allotted by the bill; nor in answer to the demand of information upon the amount of the royal income; nor in defence of the proposal to grant a civil list for the sovereign's life; and in the absence of all explanation, and of all reply to what I urged nearly a week ago—with no one fact stated—no one argument adduced in support of the measure in any point—I remain of the opinion which I then expressed, and which all the attention I have since devoted to the subject has only confirmed, that it is a most unwise, unbecoming, unstatesmanlike course of proceeding, to legislate upon such a subject prospectively for a period of perhaps half a century or more. What man can foresee—what being

with our limited understanding can pretend to foresee—what audacity, let me ask, can inspire any one to foretell anything however trifling, touching the state of affairs forty, thirty, ay even ten years hence? Yet here are we about to lay down a rule by which the expenditure of the sovereign is to be governed, and the contributions of the people towards it fixed, as long as the reign shall endure. We are to ascertain at this moment for all that period of time, how much of each article that enters into the royal expenses, shall be required for duly supporting the dignity and splendour of the Crown, and how much each article shall cost in moneys numbered, we being of necessity in the dark, absolutely in the dark, as to any one of the circumstances in which this prospective arrangement must be carried into execution. Utterly ignorant of all that must determine whether too much or too little, or only enough has been allotted—not pretending to know, or even to have the power of guessing at, any portion of the details which must decide this great matter from time to time—here are we taking upon ourselves to form an estimate, wholly depending on these unknown details, and by that estimate, fixing a civil list for ages to come! In 1837, we are deciding what shall be a proper court establishment in all its branches for the sovereign of England, in the year 1880 or 1890. Am I to be told that we can now have the means of divining anything about a court in those distant days? But are we in a condition to fix in all its details, what that court shall be in an age to which the eye of fancy alone can pierce, so as to give objects their weight, and form, and colouring? Yet this is what we are about doing; we are acting as if we could tell what in an unknown age—an age of which we can know nothing, except that we do not even know how far distant it may be—what shall be required for the comfort of the monarch—what the establishment shall be which the unknown habits of that uncertain time may render necessary, and no more than necessary for the dignity of the Crown—what shall be the cost of that establishment, decorous and needful, nor more than decorous and needful. And on such conjectures as these, or rather giving up all attempts at conjecture as utterly hopeless, and blind as to the future, and shutting our eyes with our own hands as to what we are about, we sit down to legislate as though men were not subject to change, as though time made no alteration in human affairs, or as though courtly state and circumstances alone were exempt from its inroads! What must be the inevitable consequence? In a little while, to take only the most obvious possibility, money may fall in value, and prices rise; then will come down the minister of the day, and remind us of the regard which is due to the maintenance of the royal dignity, perhaps deprecating that “niggardliness of Parliament” to which my noble friend alluded in his retrospect.

LORD MELBOURNE said he had not alluded to the niggardliness of Parliament; his reference was to Parliament before the period of the revolution.

LORD BROUGHAM.—I understood my noble friend to have made the allusion generally, and in connection with a later period; although

certainly, whatever might be said of the period before 1688, I am not aware of any ground for charging with niggardliness the Parliaments which have sat since that time. But I was about to say, that no sooner shall any change in prices take place, than down will come the minister of the Crown, armed with a gracious message, and feelingly represent the necessity of providing additional income to meet the increased expenditure; and if the country should complain, pleading the bargain made by Parliament at the commencement of the reign,—if the people should presume to say, “It was contracted and agreed in 1837, that during your majesty’s life a fixed yearly sum should be paid, without any deduction on account of prices falling, or any reference whatever to any other benefit which you might receive from change of times; and therefore, although the change has turned out to be in our favour, or at least against you, you must keep by the bargain, as we should have been obliged to do had the event been the other way;”—what will be the answer instantly given to such a remonstrance? Why, that were Parliament to listen to such things, it would be niggardly, unmindful of the dignity of the Crown, indifferent about the decent support of the royal family, disposed to leave the necessary expenses of the monarch unprovided for; and the result would be, if there is any trust due to experience—if from the past we may now reason to the future—that the country will be overcome in the contest; give way, as it always has done; open the contract; make an entirely new arrangement in compliance with the new demand, and in accordance with the novel circumstances, and suffer no one to set up against it the final and conclusive nature, which is now, as it always has been before, ascribed to the proposed arrangement. All this happened again and again in the reign of George III; and if it did not take place also in the reign of George IV and William IV, this was in all probability owing to the short duration of their reigns: the former prince having only lived ten years after his civil list was settled in 1820; and the latter unhappily not much more than six years after the arrangement of 1830.

But it is said, that any departure from the course recommended, of a contract for the sovereign’s life, is wholly without precedent. Be it so; there is nothing in the plan I propose, of voting a civil list for a limited time, more unprecedented now than those far greater changes which my noble friend eulogized so lavishly. I recommend no departure from former usage nearly so wide as the change which he justly described as most beneficial to all parties, at the restoration, when the feudal revenues were commuted for a fixed sum, and the expense of the government defrayed by the country. I recommend nothing like so great a change as that which my noble friend most justly praised, the entirely new manner of transacting all financial, and indeed all parliamentary business, introduced in the reign of King William. The change I recommend approaches more nearly the one to which he and I were ourselves parties in 1830, and which, though objected to at the time by some, appears now to have gained general approbation, since I hear not a word said against it, nor anything urged to

show, from the experience of those six or seven years, that we should return to the former practice upon the present occasion. But when men speak of the precedents, and refer to the former civil list arrangements as always having been for life, they ought to be sure that the circumstances are the same. Can anything be more different than those of the present and the two last civil lists? The late king ascended the throne at the age of sixty-eight. George IV was sixty at his accession. The present sovereign is eighteen. So that we must go back to George III, before we can find anything like a parallel case. But I confidently appeal to your lordships, if there be any real similarity between the circumstances of the country now and in 1760? Instead of a public debt of less than a hundred millions, we have one approaching to a thousand; the expense of the peace-establishment has risen from five millions to two-and-twenty; and the revenue extracted from the people is no longer under ten millions, but above fifty; cramping their industry in every direction in which it is possible for taxation to be felt. In every particular the case of 1760 offers a contrast, rather than a parallel, to the present. But even if we were now in 1760, and had to make the arrangement for a sovereign in the prime of life, with the experience of that arrangement, and our knowledge of the manner in which the plan worked, I ask, should we be tempted to repeat the experiment? What happened after the settlement of 1760? The legislature said then, as the legislature says now, that they were making, for the life of the sovereign, a conclusive, unalterable arrangement with him. They told the people, as the people are now told, that the sovereign was to have, by the year, so much and no more than was fixed, all the days of his life, happen what might as to prices, one way or the other; and men flattered themselves that at least with the reigning monarch a final settlement had been made. What followed this perpetual bargain? In less than ten years—I believe in the ninth year—after its date, a message comes from the throne, setting forth that in consequence of the change of times the income settled had proved insufficient, a debt of above half a million had been contracted, and an appeal to the liberality of Parliament had become unavoidable. In short, the arrangement was found inapplicable to the altered circumstances of the court or the country; and the debt was paid of course. Well, in nine years more, at the most disastrous period of the American war, the year when France took part against us, it was discovered that a second series of changes had taken place; another load of debt, but larger in amount, had been incurred; another message was sent down; the final and binding contract of 1760 was a second time opened for the benefit of the same party, the Crown, to the detriment again of the other party, the country; the new debt of above six hundred thousand pounds was paid off as before, and a new income settled on the monarch. In the subsequent years deficiencies were again and again supplied by payments, though to a smaller amount. New arrangements were made under Mr. Burke's bill, and afterwards in the early period of the regency. All the changes thus freely made in the contract were for the advantage of the same party;

while, as often as the other party claimed any relief from its provisions, the constant answer was, "the bargain cannot be touched; it is made for the king's life." And yet, in the face of all experience, and in disregard of all the dictates of reason and of common sense, we are going to commit the same mistakes that were committed in 1760; and being now as completely in the dark as those before us were then, we are about to make a compact which is to bind the country for half a century, and to bind the Crown only while it proves a benefit.

But if, at some future time, Parliament shall be charged with having made an improvident bargain for the country, let it not be said that they received no warning in their course! Let it not be said that no warning was given in the House of Lords, nor any attempt made to arrest such imprudence! And let this be borne in mind, that notice was in this place fairly and explicitly given of the consequences which may be looked for in a few years! And what are those consequences? If the arrangement now made shall turn out to be unfavourable for the Crown; if prices rise; if, from an altered state of society, or from any other cause, an increased splendour is deemed necessary to the royal dignity; little will it avail the people to plead the final character of the settlement of 1837. That character will go for as little as it has done in former cases of the same kind; it will go for absolutely nothing. But if it shall be found that money goes further than it does in the present day—if the quantity of the precious metals is increased—if in the progress of manufacturing industry the great staples of luxurious expenditure become cheaper—or if the necessaries of life themselves are more abundant from improvements in agriculture—if, and I trust your lordships will suffer me to contemplate such a possibility—if it shall be found, that do what you will, you can no longer hold by the corn laws; if it should happen that the people of this country, among whom of course your lordships are to be included, will no longer allow those corn laws to oppress them, will no longer submit to buy wheat or eat bread at the rate of 62s. by the quarter on this side of the channel, when as good or better may be had for between 30s. and 40s. on the other side; if your lordships shall be compelled, whether you will or no—by the force of reason—to yield; if you should find yourselves unable any longer to resist the demands of the country—when backed by the strength of argument; if your assent to the repeal of those laws should be extorted—by the hourly accumulating power of the resistance which all sound principle offers to their continuance, and you should at length give way, unable any longer to maintain the struggle against your own conviction and your patriotic feelings, and should repeal the law which keeps up the price of bread, and of labour, and of every one article that labour is concerned in providing; if from the combined effect of all these very possible changes,—the altered value of money, improved manufacturing skill, increased agricultural produce, abrogated restrictions upon the corn trade, to say nothing of accumulated capital,—all prices should fall a third or more, and every one thing which money can buy should become cheaper in that pro-

portion—and the sum now bestowed as absolutely necessary for the royal expenditure should thus be really worth so much more than it now is, and therefore so much more than is required for that expenditure—I ask any man capable of reflection, candidly to answer this short and plain question—what chance could there be of the Crown, or the ministers of the Crown, or the Parliament itself, coming forward with a proposal to reduce by a third, ay, or by a thirtieth, the income now fixed, so as to give the country any benefit from the alteration produced upon its value by the course of events? Let any proposition, bearing upon the present settlement, be but hinted at, and what would be the instantaneous reply? The contract would at once be set up as being conclusive; and the argument so often used during George the Third's long reign would be again urged, that it was a bargain for the life of the sovereign, not to be broken, or opened, or touched—a settlement conclusively binding upon the people—a bond which they never could shake off—irrevocably their law, and absolutely their fate. In short, this is a bargain which, if the Crown finds it advantageous, must be adhered to through all times and all changes, with equal tenacity; but if any benefit should accrue to the country from keeping it, and the Crown should find its interest in breaking it, then it may be broken over and over again, just as often as is convenient for one of the parties, and for the protection of the other its value is that of waste paper.

But, my lords, even if it were fitting and were prudent to follow once more this course, and pretend to fix the civil list for the whole reign, I entreat your attention to the imperfect information which we have upon every matter the most necessary to be known before we can form any estimate of the income required. This much, *I think*, will at least be granted me, that the longer the duration of this arrangement is likely to be, the more it behoves us, in common decency, to know at the least all the facts which can at present be ascertained, and which bear upon the subject matter. But will it be believed, that upon the most important part of the whole we are utterly in the dark?—that upon the amount of the income we are settling, we are all totally without information? Incredible as this may appear to be, it is yet strictly true. The whole question before us is, how much shall be bestowed upon the Sovereign for the due maintenance of the royal dignity? But, in order to ascertain this, it is absolutely necessary to know how much the Sovereign has already, independent of our gift. The measure of our gift is to be the necessities of the Crown; more than is required for the state and splendour befitting a limited monarchy we have no right to grant; more than that there is no one thoughtless enough to dream of. If the Crown had nothing wherewith to meet the expenses, we might be said to know what we are doing when we fix a certain sum to meet the demand; but as the Crown has other revenues, all that we are now about, is fixing a sum which, in addition to these, shall be adequate for the royal occasions. Well, then, the amount of these revenues we know nothing whatever about. No one is disposed to make a niggardly provision; all are agreed that the income which the

exalted station makes necessary, shall be given; but more than is necessary no one pretends to call for; and the question being, how much shall be added to a certain income in order to make the sum-total as much as is required, we are desired to answer that question without being told what the income is which is to be thus increased. We are only asked to do the impossible thing, of finding out how much must be added to an unknown quantity, in order to make a given sum—nothing more or less. It is no question whether £385,000 shall be given or not, or rather £395,000, for the sum proposed is £10,000 more than was found enough for the two last Sovereigns—one of them no very rigid economist, and the other having heavy expenses which the country could not provide for; and yet it was found that his income, though £10,000 less than is now proposed, exceeded by £20,000 what was required—but that is not the question we are upon; nor are we asked to consider whether any of these sums, £395,000 for example, is sufficient to maintain the dignity of the present Sovereign; but the question is this:—The Sovereign is possessed of an income with which this arrangement is not to interfere; by how much is that deficient?—how much must be added to that income, in order to give the Sovereign a revenue such as her station requires?—and of that income we know nothing at all. It never surely can be contended that the revenues of the two Duchies are private property, or anything like private property. I should like to hear such a proposition advanced in this age and in this House. I should like to see the man endued with the courage to maintain it.—I should like to see the man among your lordships, whether on the ministerial or on the opposition benches, gifted with the confidence which must be exhibited by him who would affirm that Cornwall and Lancaster are private and personal property, and not public funds, vested in the Sovereign only as such, enjoyed as Sovereign, and in right of the Crown alone, held as public property, for the benefit of the state, and as a parcel of the national possessions. These revenues are just as much public property, bestowed by former laws upon the monarch for public purposes, as the sum we are now adding to them, wholly in the dark as to their amount, is public property bestowed by this law. Now respecting the amount of these revenues we are utterly ignorant, as indeed we are of every one particular relating to them. The debate upon my motion to produce a return of the sums really received by the Crown from these sources, comes on to-morrow, and to-night we are to fix what addition it is necessary to make, in order that the Crown may yearly have enough to defray its necessary expenses. To the production of this information now, can there possibly be any objection? You ask for money to make up a deficiency, and you won't tell us what you have got already, by which, of course, the deficiency is to be ascertained. I heard, indeed, the other night, some difficulty raised, certainly not by the government, as if there were oaths taken by the Duchy officers which bound them to secrecy. My noble friend* near me, knows more

* Lord Holland.

of the obligations under which they are in the Lancaster department; but as to Cornwall, by far the most important in every respect, I know that there is not the least pretence for such a statement. The officers who take an oath of secrecy are the members of the duke's council and no others; but the officers who alone know anything about the revenue take no oath of the kind, and from them it is that the councillors must obtain their information. They, the councillors, only swear to keep secret the duke's counsel; but supposing they are bound not to tell what the unsworn officers have told them, all we have to do is to pass by the sworn councillor, and seek for information from the unsworn officer. Indeed it so happens, that when there is no duke of Cornwall, and the Duchy is in the Crown, there is no council, and the affairs of the Duchy are invested in commissioners, my noble friend,* the Lord Privy Seal, and others, who none of them take any oath at all, and yet they must be in possession of the information we want; for as their commission is to look after "the better management of the Duchy," they must needs know its revenue before they can see to its improvement. However, there is not a pretence, nor even the shadow of a pretence, for this concealment; information has been communicated in courts of justice; bills have been filed to set aside duchy leases; the Duchy has called upon its own officer, its Surveyor General, at the very head of the revenue department, to answer on his oath touching the affairs of that department; and the legal advisers of that officer have been furnished with information by the officers, in order that they might use it in the conduct of his cause. The objection from a supposed oath is therefore wholly groundless; and I must add, that even if there were such an oath, unless there also was shown a clear legal warrant for taking it, no such obligation of secrecy could stand in the way of the high authority of Parliament, any more than it could prove an obstacle to the inquiry of the courts of the realm upon matters within their jurisdiction. We must, therefore, dismiss all consideration of oaths from our view, and then the question remains, Why are we left without the necessary information, and yet required to decide as if we had it before us?

I will now state a few particulars respecting the Duchy of Cornwall, in order to show your lordships how important the subject is, and how entirely we are mistaking our way in legislating hastily and partially on the present important occasion, instead of waiting till the facts are before us, and then making one general arrangement of the whole crown revenues, for the benefit alike of the crown and the country. I think you may rely upon the accuracy of my information as far as it goes, for I have taken pains to draw it from authentic sources, without, I do assure you, having asked any one to violate the obligation of his oath.

There are belonging to the Duchy, between thirty and forty manors in the county of Cornwall, ten having been sold to redeem the land-tax upon the whole estates. There is, beside the manorial rights, a

* Lord Duncannon.

considerable extent of demesne land, and independent of all surface property, there are very extensive and valuable mineral rights all over the county. This is exclusive of the possessions of the Duchy, which are most valuable, in many of the other counties—Devon, Dorset, Somerset, Surry, Norfolk, Herts, and as far as Lincolnshire. There may be, in all, upwards of a hundred parcels of property of various kinds, manorial, and demesne, beside the mineral rights. I mention this to meet the doubt expressed by the noble baron opposite,* whether a return of the fines received for the last seven years would be any test of their amount in future. It is clear that in so many estates the fines will be renewable at various times, and thus that an average may easily be obtained.

Now, the property to which I have adverted is let upon lease, for lives and for terms of years, and in either case upon a moderate rent, sometimes raised indeed, but with large fines upon renewal. For the twenty-five years between 1793, the late duke's majority, and 1808, the average rents were from £3000 to £4000, the average fines from £5000 to £6000 a-year; but these were years of comparatively small receipt. During the minority there had been received considerably more than £110,000 a-year, for about £225,000 was paid out of the net revenues for the Prince of Wales' expenses; and it was never pretended that this was anything like the net profit upon the whole estates. Between 1808 and 1813 there were received in fines only, no less than £129,000, in the space of five years. For a renewal of the lease of that valuable but small piece of ground called Prince's Meadow, which adjoins Waterloo Bridge on the Surry side, no less a sum than £55,000 was taken; and for a renewed lease to the corporation, of the ground called Sutton Pool at Plymouth, a sum of £12,000. The term of years in each case was 99, but there was a rent reserved of £4000 in the one, and £1000 in the other, both to commence in 1841; so that whatever may be the unknown amount of the present Duchy income, we know that in three or four years it must on these two parcels of the estates, be increased £5000 a-year. But let us consider the fines; on these two parcels they amounted to £67,000, leaving of the whole sum of £129,000 received, £62,000, raised by fines upon the other leases renewed during these five years. Now these other leases were not for years, but for lives, all of which will drop in about three years. They are almost all comprised in four leases of valuable mineral rights, which will enable the Crown to raise almost immediately, a sum at least equal to what was paid at the last renewal, namely, £62,000. But the Crown will inevitably be enabled to gain a very great deal more; for since 1810, the value of mining property has greatly increased from the improvements in machinery, in the scientific knowledge and mechanical skill brought to bear upon the management of all underground property, and also from the general accumulation of capital. It would, therefore, by no means be too sanguine, or too bold a calculation to estimate the sum of money

* Lord Ellenborough.

which the Crown, that is the reigning sovereign, may immediately after this civil list is settled, obtain upon these four leases, at £90,000, £90,000, or even £100,000. I have conferred with persons to whom the subject is familiar, persons themselves largely engaged in mining pursuits, and I will venture to affirm that I speak within the mark very considerably, when I put the least sum which can be expected to accrue from this source, at £90,000. It is said, indeed, that the sovereign may, instead of taking fines, raise the rents, which would only effect an increase of the royal income we are now settling blind-fold. But what security have we that any such thing will be done? How can we know that the improvident mode of fines will not be again resorted to? All we know is, that everything is left unprovided for by this bill; that it depends upon the will of the monarch, whether large sums of money shall be taken at once and the Duchy revenue impoverished for years, or whether the just and prudent course shall be adopted of permanently raising the rents of the estates; and we also know that this bill, so far from affording the least security against the bad, or for the good plan of management, does not in any manner of way touch the subject, or so much as mention the Duchy from beginning to end. How, indeed, could the bill make any provision respecting these things, when we see in what manner it has been, I will not say hurried, but carried through Parliament, in all its stages and in both Houses? Not only has it been absolutely impossible that it should contain any settlement of this important affair satisfactory to the people, and becoming the station of the prince, but any settlement at all—nay, any reference to those ample revenues; nay, time has not been allowed in the extremity of our despatch, for making a mere statement of their net amount. That was to have come to-morrow, and we are assembled on this unwonted day* to pass it, in order that no time may be lost, or rather given to put us in possession of the necessary information. The income of £395,000 a-year is to be given to the Sovereign, who may on any day raise a vast additional sum by anticipating the rich revenues of the Duchy, that is of the future provision of the Duke of Cornwall, for whose support, as Heir Apparent, the constitution has provided them. And here, my lords, when I speak of the Sovereign, I must be understood only to adopt that expression for shortness sake, meaning always the responsible ministers of the Crown. Nothing can be more reprehensible than the constant introduction of the Sovereign's name, and the constant allusion to the Sovereign as an individual, of late so much in vogue amongst us. My noble whig friends have carried this tory practice to the utmost extent; the ministers are hardly any more alluded to than if there existed no such persons; and yet the old doctrine of the constitution,—the whig doctrine of which we have got so wide under whig auspices,—used in my younger days to be, that of kings and queens we knew nothing in Parliament, but only of their servants and advisers. I therefore, if I might be permitted such an old-fashioned liberty, would ven-

* Wednesday.

ture to name the minister of the time being, and remind your lordships that there is nothing whatever to prevent him, whoever he may be, my noble friend, or the noble duke, or some one as yet not known amongst us, from taking fines to the amount I have mentioned, and advising the Sovereign to spend the whole in any way he chooses, and for any purposes, however extravagant, or however unconstitutional. None of these parties are bound by anything in this bill, for adding near £400,000 to the fixed royal income,—or by any pledge given upon passing it,—or by any promise made here or elsewhere,—or by any statement, or intimation, or by any hint or understanding; none of them are in any way bound to have the Duchy revenues providently and honestly managed without anticipation; the minister of the day may help the Sovereign of the day to such fines as will impoverish the Duchy for half a century to come, and no one will have a right to say, it is against the faith of any treaty, in breach of any contract, in contravention of any understanding whatever. The four mineral leases to which I alluded as worth £80,000 or £100,000, for converting future revenue into ready money, are not by any means all; there are other sources of as abundant supply to the royal purse. For instance, there is the Kennington estate in the near neighbourhood of this house; it is Duchy property, and the lease has actually expired. The fine for renewal was, I know, some years ago, assessed at £100,000, but the lessee declined to renew;—that he would have given £80, or £90,000, there cannot be the least question;—but I make no kind of doubt that the Duchy officers were well advised respecting the value, and that the full £100,000 will, if wished for, be obtained. Upon these five parcels of property, then, now and during the next two or three years, a sum of near £200,000 may be obtained for the Sovereign, if the course hitherto pursued shall be persisted in, and the reigning Prince be advised to enrich himself at the expense of the Duchy. No provision upon this branch of the revenue is made by the bill; nor any information at all given to us upon the subject. Nothing, however, can be more clear, than that the present arrangement should not only be made with a full knowledge of that subject, but that the arrangement should comprehend the settlement of the duchies on a right footing, by the transfer of Cornwall as well as Lancaster to the public, and the placing their administration under the ordinary departments of the public service, making fair compensation to the Crown or the duke for the surrender. What do your lordships think is the charge of managing these duchies as their affairs are now administered? Of Lancaster I am not able to form so accurate an estimate; but I know that the gross revenues of Cornwall for the years from 1810 to 1819 inclusive, amounted to £333,000; and what think you was the net revenue, for the proportion of the net to the gross is the test of good management? Why, only £228,000,—so that one pound in every three was taken, absorbed, for the cost of collecting and managing the whole. Match me that, if you can, in the worst managed estate in any part of the United Kingdom! Show me the man who submits to one pound being retained in the country or lost by the way, for

every two that are paid into his account at the banker's! Another striking instance of mismanagement is afforded by the encroachments which are made everywhere upon the Duchy domains. What think you of an estate of five-and-forty acres, having, within the period of two or three generations, extended to 200 of good arable land, without any miracle, or any fresh grant, without any gain from the sea by embankment, or the deposit of any alluvial soil? The extension was effected by the address and industry of one party, the proprietor, and the carelessness of the other, the Duchy authorities. When asked by one who recollected the old bounds of the farm, how all this increase had been effected, the party now in quiet possession of the extended domain, answered innocently enough in his Cornish dialect, that it was all owing to his grandfather being a careful man and good at hedging by candle-light. Such care and such skill never could have succeeded in adding one acre to the possession, had the neighbouring property belonged to a private individual, or been under the management of my noble friend* at the head of the woods and forests. A course of encroachment which increases men's estates ten-fold within living memory, at the expense of the public, never could last six months after the affairs of the Duchy were brought under the superintendence of that vigilant department.

But the other encroachments of which I have been speaking are still more deserving of reprehension—I mean those of the reigning sovereign upon the Duchy revenues, by fines and other means of anticipation. Your lordships are aware that the eldest son of the sovereign, who is always created Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester, is born Duke of Cornwall. For his support, and the maintenance of his state and dignity, as heir-apparent to the Crown, the revenues of the Duchy are provided. While there is no duke, and during his minority, those revenues are vested in the Crown; and although it is very possible that, if well managed during the abeyance of the title, they might suffice for the purpose when a duke came into existence, this is altogether hopeless if the sovereign be suffered to exhaust the sources of regular income by anticipation. What is the consequence? The nation settles what is supposed an adequate income on the reigning sovereign; the Duchy estates are appropriated to the support of the heir-apparent; and the reigning sovereign being allowed also to exhaust and pervert all the revenue of the Duchy, the nation has afterwards to support the heir-apparent also. I have indeed heard of a very different account of the matter being given in another place. It has come to my ears, irregularly enough I admit, that a right honourable friend of mine† has there painted things in far other colours. If I could at this moment, without greater irregularity still, address myself to him, aware that what I speak he is now hearing,‡ I should add that he confounded some present on the occasion I allude to, almost

* Lord Duncannon.

† The Right Hon. T. S. Rice, Chancellor of the Exchequer.

‡ The Chancellor of the Exchequer was sitting near the Throne.

to suffocation, by affirming that the Duchy revenues were for the Prince of Wales' support, and that therefore he never came to Parliament for any grant of money. Was ever yet witnessed such profound ignorance of financial history? Was ever yet displayed such astonishing unacquaintance with princely natures? The heir-apparent live upon the reduced Cornish revenue! The Prince of Wales never come to Parliament for money? Why, within seven years of his birth, the expenses of the King's family were given as a reason for debts of half a million having been incurred, which the country immediately paid; and in nine years more, the same plea obtained a still larger sum, with an addition of £100,000 a-year, to the final settlement of 1760! But grant, that on the Prince of Wales's coming *in esse*, and during his minority, there was no specific application made to Parliament on his behalf, the instant he came of age a message was sent down, and a sum of £50,000 a-year granted, over and above the revenues of the Duchy,—those revenues which we are told preclude all occasion for an application to Parliament. From the hour that he became of an age to be capable of spending money, the public treasure was lavished in providing for his support, and in enormous sums from time to time to pay his debts. What, then, can be more wild than the pretence that the Duchy revenues should be withheld from the public, because they are a provision for the heir-apparent, unless it be the yet more extravagant inconsistency of pretending that you are keeping them for this purpose, and all the while suffering the reigning sovereign to use them at pleasure, anticipating the income as often as money is wanted for any purpose, and reducing the amount to be afterwards enjoyed by the Prince?

I think, my lords, that I have said enough to demonstrate the absurdity of proceeding in the present arrangement without having before us all those heads of information; the great impolicy of making a partial and perpetual settlement of the royal revenue; and the improvident, unstatesmanlike percipitancy with which we are hurrying through this measure, instead of laying, on the present occasion, the foundation of a general and systematic plan which may comprehend all the branches of the sovereign's income, and secure to all of them an efficient and beneficial administration for the future. But there is another part of the bill upon which I feel it necessary to make one or two observations: I mean the project for new-modelling the pension list, and enabling the Crown to grant so many pensions yearly as amount to £1200 in the whole. This is a matter of great moment, and it is beset by no ordinary difficulties. That the power of rewarding merit, whether displayed in the immediate service of the state, or towards mankind at large, should exist somewhere, cannot be questioned. If that high and peculiarly delicate discretion is vested in the sovereign, perhaps upon the whole the most unexceptionable arrangement, I yet am well aware of the abuse to which its exercise is liable. I have no fear of corruption, or of any gross abuse, so long as Parliament shall be informed of the grants made from time to time. It is rather the careless use of this patronage that I am apt to dread, arising

from ignorance of the subject, and from indolently yielding to importunity. There must also be admitted to exist some risk of giving men of letters that habit of looking for court favour, so fatal to independence, and so often turned to a bad account in the monarchies of the continent. Yet all this may be practised without any pension list, practised in corners where the eye of scrutiny cannot pierce, or the finger of reprobation point, by the abuse of other ample funds vested in the Crown, should the disposition to corrupt learned men exist, and be met by a willingness on their part to stoop from their proud eminence, and degrade themselves into the servile creatures of a court. Then I must look at the other side of the picture, and that leaves me no room to doubt that the evils which beset the steps of genius, demand relief; nay, that there must be the means provided of removing the actual obstruction to its career. I know so much of the struggles which are so often made by those great men—the lights of the world, born to exalt human nature, to stretch the views and the power of man by the conquests of science, and whose lowest title to our gratitude is, that their immortal labours polish, and multiply, and enrich all the arts of life. Following at an immeasurable distance, and, as it were, only with the eye, their bright path—slaking my thirst at the sources which they have opened,—or humbly bearing into darker regions the sacred light which their genius has kindled, I know how often it has happened that their course has been impeded by craving wants; that they have been fain to quell within them the desire of original investigation, to tame down their lofty spirit, and quit the congenial pursuits that were leading them on to extend the empire of science, or giving them to enchant countless ages with the inspirations of their fancy—for the humbler occupations that minister to the wants of frail humanity. Aware of this—having present to my mind such necessities as these, and the inevitable consequences of their not being relieved—can I hesitate in agreeing to some provision being made for removing such obstructions, and enabling the greatest benefactors of mankind to prosecute their highest vocation?

But even this part of the arrangement is liable to the objection I have urged against all the rest. We are legislating precipitately, and without the requisite information. In what position is the question at this hour? A committee has been appointed by the other House to investigate the whole subject. Has its report been approved? It has not even been considered. Has it been made? It is not yet drawn up. Has the committee agreed upon any report? It has not examined a person, a paper, or a record. Has it proceeded to business at all? It has not yet met. It is barely appointed; it is only called into existence, after a stormy birth, and many a struggle for life; it is just alive, and no more. No man can divine what it may do when it comes to mature strength, and can act. No conjecture is offered of what may be the result of its labours, or so much as what course they shall take. And yet we are called upon to settle the pension list upon a very hasty and crude suggestion thrown out in quite another committee. The committee appointed expressly to consider pensions,

has done nothing; all men are anxiously awaiting its proceedings. The committee on the civil list having no particular commission to consider pensions, makes a report as meagre and scanty as possible on the civil list, and throws in a hurried and ill considered remark upon a subject not belonging to its inquiry. We are desired to legislate irrevocably touching pensions upon this remark of the civil list committee, and not to wait for the report of the pension committee? If we had been about making provision for the pensions during a life of sixty, as in George IV's case, or of sixty-eight as in William IV's—even then such thoughtless haste would have been indecent. But we are providing for a life of eighteen; and such is the impatience, not only of a day's delay, but of all inquiry and all discussion, that in the absence of the information which a committee has been appointed expressly to obtain, we are to catch at and grasp a chance expression in another committee's report, and sitting on unwonted days, and assembling at unaccustomed hours, we hurry through the bill which is to make law for half a century, in breathless impatience, for fear that by the least delay we should postpone our decision until the materials for making it are before us! But if all this haste was necessary, and not an instant of time was to be lost, why, let me ask, were we not called together earlier in the season? In 1830, we met at the beginning of November instead of the end. In former years, when the war raged, we were assembled in September. I ask my noble friend at the head of the colonies,* why did we not meet as early now? Would it not have been expedient to profit by the wisdom of Parliament, for adopting some definite course upon the great question that now agitates our principal settlement in America? Ought we not betimes to have resolved at least upon some principles of conduct, and steadily pursued them, instead of letting our precipitancy in one thing rival our slowness in another, and our vacillation of purpose where decision was required, maintain the strife with our pertinacity when the truest wisdom was to retrace our steps? Ought we not to have so early met the great council of the nation, as to give time for correcting, by the help of experience, the fatal errors of last May? If those who preceded us could aforesaid meet in the autumn, that the work of slaughter might be done, ought not we to have been early convoked, for the more blessed labours of conciliation and peace? Then there had been no occasion for that hurry which has marked every step in this measure, and must for ever sink its value to nothing in the eyes of all reflecting men. As many months and weeks would have been given as we now had days and hours for considering all its provisions; and the same wise foresight and deliberate prudence which presided over the whole settlement for supporting the crown, would have preserved the brightest of the jewels that it still retains.

But I have done my duty—I have unburthened my conscience—I have relieved my own mind. It remains that I render my thanks to your lordships, which I sincerely and respectfully do, for the patience

* Lord Glenelg.

with which you have had the kindness to hear so many things in which you disagree with me, and which are not listened to without uneasiness, any more than they can be delivered without pain. It has indeed been my irksome task to obstruct you in the course all seemed most anxious to pursue with little reflection and no delay, and to obstruct you by a recourse to principles now, I fear, out of date—the principles of legislation, sanctioned by the spirit of former precedent, and the analogy of constitutional law. This unwelcome office you have suffered me to perform, and my humble thanks are your due. Will you indulge me with your attention yet a moment while I advert to the singular predicament in which the sovereign is placed for whose high estate the provision that we are making is destined? It is wholly unnecessary that I should profess those sentiments of dutiful attachment which bind all of us to the illustrious House, called by the choice of the people to preside over the destinies of these realms. Nor does any one among you all rejoice more sincerely than I have done in the enthusiasm of affection which has burst from all her subjects, to greet the accession of the reigning monarch. They have generously let expectation usurp the place of gratitude. They have taken counsel with hope, rather than experience. For as memory scatters her sweets with a cold and churlish hand, it has been found more pleasing to array the object of the general love in the attire of fancy; and as fervent a devotion has been kindled towards the yet untried ruler, as could have glowed in her people's bosom after the longest and most glorious reign, in which she should have only lived and only governed for the country's good; by some chronic miracle, escaping all error and all failure, and only showering down blessings upon mankind. I heartily rejoice in this enthusiasm, and I *do not* complain of it as premature. I rejoice in it because it must prove delightful to the royal object of it. I rejoice still more because I know that it will stimulate the Queen to live for her country, in order to earn the affections which have already been bestowed, and justify the opinion which has been formed and is so fondly cherished upon trust. But most chiefly do I rejoice, because it extinguishes for ever all apprehensions of the English people's loyalty and trustworthiness; puts to shame all who would represent them as disaffected towards monarchical institutions; demonstrates the safety of entrusting them with an ample measure of political rights; and teaches to statesmen this great practical lesson, that the more we extirpate abuse from our system, the more searching we make our reforms, the more we endear the constitution to the people by making them feel its benefits—the safer will be the just rights of the monarch who is its head, and the stronger will be the allegiance of the subject who cheerfully obeys. So that, far from dreading the policy which would strengthen the people's hands by confirming their liberties and extending their rights, we ought to pursue this course for the sake of the monarchy itself, which we shall thus better entitle to the people's affections, and render, because more beloved, more secure.

PRIVILEGE OF PARLIAMENT.

INTRODUCTION.

THE pretensions at different times set up by the Houses of Parliament to certain privileges placing them above the law of the land, are the more familiarly known in consequence of their having of late been brought into discussion by a new and extravagant claim, asserted on behalf of the House of Commons, to publish libels through irresponsible agents. The natural course of irregular and anomalous power is, that it should increase gradually until it becomes intolerable, and creates resistance which finally prevails. The tendency of Parliamentary privilege to overthrow all law, and erect an unbearable tyranny on its ruins, seems early in our history to have become so apparent, that a check was soon provided to impede its farther progress; and we accordingly find, that in former times pretences were advanced, and generally allowed, on the part of the two Houses, which they were afterwards obliged to abandon. Not content with the power of issuing what orders they pleased, and taking whatever steps they chose in their collective capacity, the Commons at one period held, and were suffered by the judges to hold, that their members were clothed with extraordinary immunities as private individuals. They were not only free from all arrest for debts, but their servants were set equally above the law, and every member's house enjoyed the privilege of sanctuary, which is now confined to the royal palaces. So there are repeated instances of the Commons deciding questions of property between their members and strangers, and punishing the latter, without any hearing, for disputing the title of members—a proceeding so despotic, absurd, and barbarous, as cannot probably be matched in the history of any other assembly in the civilized world. But these, and other extravagant claims, although acted upon within the last seventy or eighty years, have since been silently abandoned, and, excepting the freedom from arrest for debt enjoyed by individual members, no privilege is claimed beyond the walls of Parliament, except for the acts of the two Houses themselves in their collective capacity.

Even the extravagant claims of the Houses have begun to be restrained within narrower bounds than they acknowledged in more ancient times. But of late years, especially since the controversy arising out of Sir Francis Burdett's publication in 1810, a disposition has seemed to be once more spreading in favour of high privilege doctrines; and some men have professed themselves their champions, as if they thus furthered the cause of popular rights. The accession of power gained by the democratic part of the constitution by the late reform has increased this inclination to stickle for extreme rights; and in 1831, a new and unheard of claim was asserted by some members of the lower House, to be free from the jurisdiction of courts of justice in offences of a very grave nature—namely, those contempts which obstruct the whole course of justice.

Mr. Long Wellesley in 1831 raised a privilege question with the Court of Chancery. He had been ordered, by a decree of that court, affirmed afterwards on appeal in the House of Lords, to give up the custody of his infant children, wards of the court. He violated the order, took away the infants from those appointed to take charge of them, and removed them beyond the jurisdiction, to France. He came into court when asked to attend, and declared that he refused to bring them back, or give them up. The Lord Chancellor immediately committed him for this contempt to the custody of the sergeant-at-arms. Mr. Long Wellesley moved for his discharge. The question was rested upon his privilege as a member of Parliament.

Some members of the House took it up—a committee was appointed—precedents were searched for—and a report was made that there was no such privilege.

This attempt of Mr. Wellesley, and of those who supported him in the House of Commons, thus signally failed. But the circumstance of its meeting with any support was sufficiently striking, and seemed to show that there existed a disposition to revive antiquated claims of privilege, and even to carry the pretensions of immunity from the laws of the country, on the part of members of Parliament, farther than they had ever in the worst times been pushed. Accordingly, the defeat of 1831 did not prevent a renewal of the conflict; for in 1836, Mr. Lechmere Charlton, being a suitor in the Court of Chancery, as well as a member of the House of Commons, grossly insulted first a Master in Chancery, and then the Lord Chancellor, both acting in their judicial capacity; and when committed to the Fleet for his offence, as a matter of course, threw himself upon the protection of the House, whose privileges he considered to be violated in his person. The usual notification of his imprisonment had been made to the speaker—a form always observed, by way of testifying respect for the House, and accounting for the imprisoned member's absence. It is, indeed, a form which would be observed were a member committed by a magistrate for robbery. Nor, it may be observed, is there a single argument ever urged in favour of privilege which would not serve as a pretence for allowing all the members of both Houses to rob and murder with impunity on the highway.

It might have been supposed that the question of privilege had been sufficiently settled six years before, and that no farther struggle would have been attempted on so desperate a ground. If each time that a member is arrested for a crime, the House of Commons is to inquire into the state of the law and the extent of its privileges, a serious obstruction is given to the execution of that law; its provisions never can be regarded as settled, encouragement is held out to violate it; the House exhibits itself as yielding a very unwilling obedience to the enactments to which itself was a party; and besides encountering the odium proverbially attached to those law-makers who are also law-breakers, it lowers its dignity materially by undergoing multiplied discomfitures in a needless conflict. For what can possibly be more needless than that, the question of right having been once settled, both by decisions of the courts and resolutions, the result of full inquiry in the House itself, each time that a new case of the same kind occurs for the application of the same rule, a new inquiry should take place to ascertain what the rule is which had long before been solemnly fixed? Yet such is the course pursued in Parliament; and accordingly, a committee was appointed to examine Mr. L. Charlton's case, and to report upon the grave and decorous question—whether or not a person who happens to be a member of Parliament, has a right to commit such outrage as he may think fit upon any of the judges or any of the courts where he may chance to be a suitor! Indeed it was farther alleged, that Mr. L. Charlton, being a barrister, had some farther right appertaining to him in that capacity. But the House of Commons did not perhaps deem the circumstance of the offender being a minister of the court against which he had committed a contempt, any mitigation of his offence. At all events they left the bar to protect its own privileges; and indeed there seems no conceivable reason why that body should not also have made common cause with the guilty party, so far at least as to inquire whether or not one of their members was rightfully imprisoned, and thus suspended from the exercise of his functions. It is highly probable that such an investigation would have ended in a report against the privilege; but this, according to the practice of the Commons, would have been no kind of reason for the bar not instituting another similar inquiry, the next time that a barrister was committed for a like offence.

However, a committee was appointed to inquire, and after a considerable time spent in the investigation of the question, it reported that the imprisonment of the member for his offence was no breach of the privileges of Parliament. Consequently the House refused to interfere with the Court of Chancery, exactly as it had refused in the case of Mr. Long Wellesley, six years before. What the consequences of its interference would have been, had the propensities of the advocates of privilege been gratified, is another question. Lord Brougham, when chancellor, avowed (in the following judgment) that he would have pronounced

the same sentence precisely, had the Commons arrived at an opposite conclusion and maintained the title of its members to insult the court with impunity. It is probable too that the same course would have been taken in 1837. In either case the country would have witnessed the spectacle of a conflict at the prison doors between the macers of the Commons and the chancery, each claiming possession of the offender's body. But the contest would not have ended there. If the Commons were in the right, the court was in the wrong, and was guilty of a high contempt in detaining the member of Parliament. Consequently the Lord Chancellor must be taken into custody, brought to the bar of the House, compelled to make submission, reprimanded, and discharged on payment of the fees; or kept in confinement until the end of the session, if he refused to submit. Does any mortal believe that the country would have endured the sight of this outrage upon a judge for administering justice according to his oath? But does any mortal believe that Lord Brougham would have submitted to be arrested by the sergeant-at-arms? If he had he was unworthy of his place; for he was submitting without resistance to lawless violence. Yet such are the extremities to which all the doctrines of the privilege champions necessarily lead. In order to be consistent they must maintain that the Houses of Parliament alone are the judges of their privileges. This right is worth nothing if it is confined to judging of the general and abstract question. They accordingly also maintain that they alone are the judges to decide whether, in any particular instance, those privileges have been broken. Hence there is but one issue to which their conflict with the courts of law can ever come. If the judges persist in affirming their own jurisdiction, the Commons must proceed by main force to prevent the jurisdiction from being exercised against their members or their agents. They did so in Queen Anne's time. Perfectly wrong in their claims, they were perfectly consistent in their enforcement of those groundless pretensions. They ordered all the sergeants, barristers, attorneys, and parties to be committed; and they must have committed the judges also had they proceeded. There is manifestly no alternative between this course and abandoning the claim altogether; for submitting it to the decision of the adverse party, is the most absolute of all surrenders. Thus the doctrine of privilege has this recommendation, among so many others, that it necessarily begets a conflict in the outset between the supreme Parliamentary and supreme judicial powers; and begins with that outrage and that violence where all other controversies end.

These remarks have received important illustration since Mr. L. Charlton's case. It appears that the indifferent success which had attended their efforts in 1831 and 1836, did not dishearten the men of high privilege. In 1837 they were fated to exhibit new prowess, and to sustain renewed discomfiture, and even humiliation, upon advancing a novel pretension. A resolution having been taken in 1836, to publish for sale the papers of the Commons, and in the genuine spirit of retail dealing, to give "*the trade*," as it was, with technical felicity of phrase, termed, the benefit of a discount, the Parliamentary shopkeeper was found selling libels against the character of individuals. An action was brought for the published slander; and the defendant set up the authority of the House as his protection against answering for the wrong committed. The eminent judge before whom this question was raised, performed his duty as faithfully and as firmly as might have been expected from him who had, at the bar and in the senate, made the name of Denman illustrious for uncompromising integrity, and unflinching defiance to the frowns of power. He who had so often scorned the assaults of authority which was lawful in its constitution, although perverted to purposes of oppression, might well be supposed incapable of abating one jot of his resistance, when the threats proceeded from the perpetrators of a lawless usurpation. He bravely told the Commons that the law which he was sworn to administer knew of no privilege to commit crimes, and he drove the party to another defence. On that defence he prevailed; but new actions being brought, the House of Commons again appointed a committee to inquire, and an elaborate report was produced, and adopted by the House—a report which has ever since been the laughing-stock of all rational men; for the absurdity of its conclusions, the illogical texture of its reasonings, the self-destructive inconsistency of its successive positions, and even the gross inconsistencies of its singularly unhappy and scarcely grammatical diction. It however

asserted plainly enough one pretension, and that was, the right of the House to make whatever law it chose for itself upon all subjects, and to assume, by a simple vote of its own, any right whatever. It farther declared all who disputed its resolutions, or acted, judicially or otherwise, in opposition* to its claims, to be guilty of breach of privilege.†

Nothing certainly could be more high, or more mighty, or more uncompromising, than the tone of these resolutions. But it was soon found to be a tone of so loud a pitch that it could not be sustained above eight-and-forty hours. For after that short interval of triumph, of bluster, and of brag, had elapsed, the gentle and more easily maintained note of submission was sounded. The Lord Chief Justice had, in the meanwhile, declared in the House of Lords, that he should utterly disregard the monstrous pretensions set forth in the resolutions; and when the question arose in the Commons next day what course should be taken with the actions brought against their libel-seller, it was deemed expedient to forget, suddenly and entirely, the famous resolutions of the day before yesterday, and to direct that the attorney-general should appear and defend the actions in the Court of King's Bench—thus submitting the question of their privileges to the decision of that court with which they were in open conflict, and which but two days before they had pronounced guilty of a contempt, if it dared to entertain the question!

It may well be thought that this melancholy plight into which the doctrine of privilege was brought, would sicken even the stiffest appetite for that rare dainty. However, the parties have, on behalf of the Commons, pleaded the privilege, and a demurrer of the plaintiff leaves the question to be decided, first by the Court of King's Bench, afterwards, in the last resort, by the House of Lords—another strange anomaly, and a complete departure from the principle—for nothing assuredly can be more repugnant to the whole doctrine than that one House should judge of the other's privileges.

It may be observed, in conclusion, that the pretensions set up by individual members, and somewhat countenanced by the House successively examining the merits of each case, how outrageous soever, hardly exceed in violence the claims now advanced for the House in its collective capacity. If the contentions of the Long Wellesleys, and the Lechmere Charltons had prevailed, we should have been living in a country where above eleven hundred persons had a right, with absolute impunity, to set at defiance every court in the kingdom, to refuse obeying their orders, and to rush into their presence at all hours and insult their judges with the grossest language, nay, with personal violence—a state of society to which there is nothing parallel among the most barbarous tribes of Africa or America. Whether or not such was the law of England—of England, so proud, and heretofore so justly proud, of her judicial system—appeared so doubtful a matter to the Commons, that they held a solemn inquiry touching it, in one year, and having determined in the negative, so great was their hankering after that condition of the law, as to render necessary a second investigation of the same perplexing, and difficult, and doubtful question, a few years after; and all this not in the Druidical times, but towards the middle of the nineteenth century. But there may be a doubt if the pretension now, *sub judice*, is not nearly as violent in its nature, and pregnant with consequences if possible more alarming, because more widely extensive. Not only is it asserted as right that the commons may authorize, without the concurrence of the other branches of Parliament, any person to slander any others, and to sell their slanders with absolute impunity for the profit of the Commons, but it is maintained, that whatever any vote of either House of Parliament shall declare to be the right and the privilege of that House, must be taken to be its right and its privilege, and submitted to as such by all mankind, without any consent from those co-ordinate branches of the legislature, without whose joint concurrence not the most trifling encroachments can be made upon the rights of any one individual,

* This was the plain meaning of the resolutions moved by Lord Howick, chairman of the committee; but the words used were, "acted inconsistently with the said privileges,"—which is manifestly mere nonsense.

† Here again the meaning is given, and not the language of the resolutions. That language was as much nonsense as in the former instance.

although every one other member of the community should declare for the act. If such be the law of Parliament, we may well feel anxious about the law of the land; for assuredly the two cannot continue to exist together.

It is singular how little the advocates of the extreme doctrine of privilege have of late years been guided by the same sound and temperate views which breathed through the language of their predecessors, and regulated their conduct in former times. Mr. Burke belonged to the same school; as his sincere friends, Mr. Windham and Mr. Elliot, reminded Parliament by their zeal on the great question of 1810. Mr. Dowdeswell, chancellor of the exchequer, and a distinguished member of the Rockingham party when Mr. Burke entered into public life, held the same high opinions upon the same controversy. Yet mark the sobriety of the language in which one of those eminent men expresses himself upon the other's tomb, when recording his friend's principles for the veneration of after ages: "He understood, beyond any man of his time, the revenues of his country, which he preferred to everything except its liberties; he was a perfect master of the law of Parliament, and attached to its privileges until they were set up against the rights of the people."* All rights are now utterly disregarded by the advocates of privilege, excepting that of exposing their own shortsighted impolicy and thoughtless inconsistency. Nor would there be any safety for the people under their guidance, if unhappily their powers of doing mischief bore any proportion to their disregard of what is politic and just.

* Epitaph on the Monument in Bushley Church, Worcestershire, erected in 1778.

J U D G M E N T

PRONOUNCED BY THE LORD CHANCELLOR,

IN THE CASE OF

WELLESLEY v. THE DUKE OF BEAUFORT,

JULY 28, 1831.

I AM exceedingly well pleased that I took the course which I saw fit to take, and which I thought the interests of justice prescribed, without any deviation from the strictest rules in force here, as well as in all other courts, with respect to the hearing of counsel. In conformity with those rules, I suffered Mr. Beames to address the court as *amicus curiæ*, upon a question so grave in itself, and so nearly touching the liberty of the subject. This practice has been frequently adopted in matters resembling the subject of the present discussion. It is not unusual in the Court of King's Bench, which, in the exercise of its high criminal jurisdiction, is wont to let in the light to be obtained from such arguments, that a failure of justice may be prevented.

I am the better satisfied with having taken that course in this case, because Mr. Beames has, in an exemplary manner, abstained from abusing the indulgence which I gave him. He has confined himself most rigidly to the question which he endeavoured to illustrate; he has abstained from all that did not come strictly within the scope of that permission; he has stated the argument with his usual distinctness and acuteness, and with very great succinctness indeed, considering the extent of the field over which he had to travel, and the variety of learning, more or less bearing on the subject, which he must have gone through in his own researches. In a word, he has exercised the delicate office of *amicus curiæ* with great correctness and precision.

If, upon hearing Mr. Beames, I had found he threw any new light upon the question, which may now be said to be under consideration, after a fortnight's discussion, elsewhere as well as here; if he had imported into the consideration of it any fresh authorities, or any hitherto uncited cases, I should undoubtedly have paused to give the party on whose behalf substantially he has addressed me, the benefit even of

possibilities and doubts. But it is no disparagement of Mr. Beames' learning or industry, to say that he has failed to bring novelty into a discussion of so long standing that it may well be termed *vexata*—that he has failed to add anything new, only because such an addition would inevitably have been departing from the matter which was appropriate to the discussion; only because it had been exhausted by his predecessors; and because no man could hope to be original in it without also being erroneous. Therefore, although leaning, as I ought to do, towards the gentleman on whose behalf it has been attempted to raise a doubt, I yet feel no obligation on my part to delay the expression of my opinion upon the legal and constitutional point now made. The old authorities upon the subject of Parliamentary privilege are to be taken with very ample allowance, for they all refer to times, and exist in circumstances, wherein the claim of privilege by members of Parliament was infinitely larger than anything upon which both Houses now are content to rest. One can hardly open a book under the head of Parliamentary privilege, without being satisfied of the truth of this proposition. In the very volume of *Peere Williams*, from which the *Shaftsbury* case has been quoted, it is laid down in *Lord Clifford's* case,* that the first process against a peer of the realm, or against a person having privilege of the lower House as a knight of the shire, or as a citizen or burgess, is sequestration. But in another case† in the same book, without a name, and equally without authority in these days, it is stated that the same exemption extends to the menial servants of peers; and that the first process in their case also for any contempt of court, (for no exception is made,) is not by arrest of the body, but by sequestration. This, too, was so ruled after the statute of William‡ in restraint of privilege; and the right must indeed have existed after that act, if the privilege ever existed in those menial servants, just as it did before the act; for the statute saves the rights of all persons then having privilege, and makes no difference in its enactments between the case of the master and that of the servant.§

To bring authorities either from the records of Parliament, or indeed from the records of courts, in times when privilege was so much larger than is now contended or even thought of by the stoutest champion of parliamentary rights,—so much more extensive, that it might be said to be a different rather than the same claim,—is manifestly of no use in disposing of the practical question now before us.

But if any one wishes to see how far the pretensions of the Houses of Parliament have formerly been carried, to know how incumbent it is upon the courts of law to defend their high and sacred duty of guarding the lives, the liberties, and the properties of the subject, and protecting the respectability, and the very existence of the Houses of Parliament themselves; against wild, and extravagant, and groundless, and inconsistent notions of privilege, it would be sufficient to refer, not to the times of the *Plantagenets*, of the *Tudors*, or of the

* 2 P. Wms. 385.

† 12 and 13 W. III, c. 3.

‡ Anon. 1 P. Wms. 535.

§ See 10 G. 3, c. 50.

Stuarts, the records of which abound in extravagant dicta of the courts, and yet more extravagant pretensions of the two Houses,—but to a much later and more rational period of parliamentary history—to the days of the family under whom happily all classes in these realms have so long enjoyed, each in its sphere, the rights of freemen.

In the year 1759, an action of trespass for breaking and entering a fishery was tried in the House of Commons, to the lasting opprobrium of parliamentary privilege, to the scandal and disgrace of the House of Parliament that tried it, and to the astonishment and alarm of all good men, whether lawyers or laymen. *Admiral Griffin* made complaint to the House, whereof he was a member, that three men, whose names were stated, had broken into and entered his fishery near Plymouth, had taken the fish therefrom, and destroyed the nets therein; and the House forthwith, instead of indignantly and in mockery of such a pretension dismissing the charge, and censuring him who made it, ordered the defendants in the trespass, for so they must be called, to be committed into the custody of the sergeant-at-arms. They were committed into that custody accordingly; they were brought to the bar of the House of Commons, and there, on their knees, they confessed their fault; they promised never again to offend the admiral by interfering with his alleged right of fishery; and upon this confession and promise they were discharged on paying their fees. So that, by way of privilege, a trespass was actually tried by the plaintiff himself sitting in judgment against his adversary the defendant, and the judge (for in this case the House and the complaining party must be considered as identical) was pleased to decide in his own favour.*

This is enough to warn courts of justice how they accede to claims of privilege, the instant they hear that once magical word pronounced. Even in the event of the House of Parliament, by their committee's report and by their votes, having decided in favour of so monstrous a pretension, I should still have deemed it my duty, if the facts of the case authorized me, to act as I am now prepared to act, or rather to continue acting. If, instead of justly, temperately, and wisely abandoning this monstrous claim, I had found an unanimous resolution of the House in its favour, I should still—(and it was this which made me interpose to assure the counsel that I needed not the resolution of the House of Commons in favour of the court of chancery)—I should still have steadily pursued my own course, and persisted in acting according to what I knew to be the law.

Having disposed, generally speaking, of the authorities of those early days by these observations, I must, however, remark farther, that I can find no cases in the books to justify the assertion of privilege now made. I speak not of the records of Parliament, but confine my proposition to judicial authority. This distinction I feel myself, after mature deliberation, authorized and bound to take. For let not any one imagine, that when I at once, and without argument, ordered *Mr.*

* Commons' Journals, vol. xxviii, pp. 489, 550. The journals of that period abound with cases of a similar kind. See 2 Mylne and Keen, 395.

Wellesley to be committed to the Fleet, well knowing at the time that he was a member of the House of Commons, I was taken unprepared, or expressed a rash or unfadvised opinion. The case was familiar to my mind. I had seen it in every form; I had heard it discussed in every shape—I had seen it in the court of Parliament; I had encountered it in the courts of law. In all those courts I had borne a share in the discussion, having myself argued the greatest of all the cases,* when it came by writ of error from the Courts of King's Bench and Exchequer Chamber before the highest judicature of the realm, the House of Lords, sitting as a court of law. The result of that deliberation and attention has been confirmed in my mind by more recent inquiry, and by again going over the ground I had so often previously trodden; and the conclusion I have come to is, that there is no ground whatever to maintain the claim of privilege now set up.

To those who argue on the other side I at once make a present of almost all that Mr. Beames urged this morning, as to commitments for refusing to put in an answer, for refusing to pay money ordered to be paid, for resisting a decree to perform any specific act, for cutting down timber,† or doing any other act in the face of an injunction, and in the face of any other order of this court. The breach of any order, substantially of a civil description, and in a civil matter, that is, a matter touching the rights of real or personal property, will not entitle this court, the Court of King's Bench, the Common Bench, the Exchequer of the King, nay, not even the House of Lords itself, judging in the last resort, to attach the person of the party having privilege of Parliament, and disobeying such an order.

I leave for further observation that ingenious and acute part of Mr. Beames' argument where he takes the ground of denying the distinction between a civil and a criminal contempt, the only part of his argument in which I think he may be said to have thrown any new light upon the subject. I had, however, previously considered the question in this point of view; I had frequently heard it discussed, in the course of the former controversies; and it was not therefore now presented to my mind in this light for the first time.

Accordingly, the ground on which I rest my denial of parliamentary privilege in the present case, is not that taken by my Lord Coke, and by the oftentimes repeated resolutions of the House of Commons,—the proposition which makes the exception, but confines it to treason, felony, and surety of the peace, and maintains privilege in every other case. I have already, in the course of the argument, stated one reason why I cannot so restrict the privilege,—why I draw my line in another direction, or higher up upon the scale. If the only ground of commitment, by a court of competent jurisdiction to try the case,

* *Burdett v. Abbot*, *Burdett v. Colman*, 5 Dow. 165

† In *Shirley v. Earl Ferrers*, Lincoln's Inn Hall, July 15, 1831, the Lord Chancellor affirmed an order, by which it was directed that a sequestration should issue against the defendant, Earl Ferrers, for cutting down timber in breach of an injunction, and that an agent of his lordship, who had been a party to the same contempt should be committed to the Fleet.

was that a breach of the peace had been committed, the breach of the peace not being the main offence, but only incidental to it, and accidentally mixed up with it,—if that were the only ground, no court could commit for a contempt unaccompanied by a breach of the peace, however aggravated the criminality of that contempt might have been. And a second consequence would also follow, that this or any other court which had not jurisdiction of a breach of the peace, could not commit at all. A justice of the peace could commit; the Court of King's Bench could commit; but the Court of Chancery, the Common Bench, or the Exchequer, could not commit, because they have no jurisdiction, no cognisance of the peace.

There are, however, many offences,—and this is the other ground of my denying that to be the right distinction,—offences for which no man can doubt the right of the Courts of Common Pleas, of Exchequer, and of Chancery, to commit; offences for which till now their right to commit has never been disputed; offences involving no breach of the peace, and for which, by every day's practice, parties are committed by those courts, and by the Court of King's Bench, not sitting as a criminal court.

If the line is to be assumed which has been drawn by Lord Coke in the First Institute, and followed by the Houses of Parliament, without, as it appears to me, duly weighing the subject matter, will it be said that a member of Parliament can commit perjury without punishment? That is no treason, or felony, or breach of the peace; it is not even such an offence as for which you can have "surety of the peace," the expression used in some of the parliamentary resolutions. It may be said, indeed, that a member of Parliament is liable to an indictment for perjury in any court that has competent jurisdiction, and will, on conviction, be punished in his person by imprisonment. But upon this two material observations arise:—First, if breach of the peace, treason, and felony, alone give to any court a right to take the body of a person having privilege of Parliament, where is that qualification of Lord Coke's rule, or of the resolutions of the Commons, to be found, which entitles a court, after trial and conviction, to touch the person of the privileged man? From the beginning to the end of the parliamentary discussions on the subject, there is no distinction taken between mesne process, and the execution of a sentence. And yet, if the limit of the rule of privilege is to be taken from the text of Lord Coke, or from the resolutions of the Houses of Parliament, no member of Parliament could be imprisoned even upon a conviction for perjury by virtue of a judicial sentence legally pronounced. But the second observation renders the accuracy of the first immaterial. What shall be said of a crime nearly equal to perjury as to its effects in defeating the ends of justice, a crime which, though not in a technical sense equal, is yet in all other respects the same with perjury,—I mean prevarication upon oath? If the prevarication amounts to all that moral perjury can reach, either in mischief or in guilt,—if a man has twenty times over in his cross-examination told a falsehood, and his next breath has operated his own conviction

of that falsehood, unless it be upon a point material to the issue to be tried, it is not perjury in law. What do the courts, when that foul crime is committed in their face? They do not order the party to be indicted for perjury, as he would be if he had sworn falsely to a thing material to the issue,—because they know that he must then escape upon a trial; but they order him to stand committed for his prevarication. In what form, and under what name? For a contempt of the court by prevaricating on his oath. If in the Court of King's Bench, a member of Parliament should so far forget his honour as a representative, and his duty as a man, as to prevaricate grossly on his oath, was it ever dreamt he would be at liberty to say, "True, I have prevaricated; but I am a knight of the shire, I am a citizen, or I am a burgess in Parliament; true it is, I have done that which degrades and disgraces me, that which is the most flagrant attempt that can be made to defeat the administration of justice; true it is I have done that, for committing which any other man would have been hurried from hence to a dungeon; but I am a member of the House of Commons; I have privilege of Parliament, and my person is as sacred as the oath which I have taken and broken." Were any man so ill advised as to offer such an insult to the court, far from operating to his protection under this privilege, it is my firm belief, it is my fervent hope, that it would make him cease to be a member of Parliament by expulsion. But it is also my belief, that it would, in the first instance, be visited with condign punishment by the court whose dignity had been outraged; and that, long before the House which he had disgraced had thrust him forth, the court would vindicate its insulted honour, and reject with scorn the plea of privilege by which he had aggravated his offence.

The line, then, which I draw is this: that against all civil process privilege protects; but that against contempt for not obeying civil process, if that contempt is in its nature or by its incidents criminal, privilege protects not; that he who has his privilege of Parliament, in all civil matters,—matters which, whatever be the form, are in substance of a civil nature, may plead it with success, but that he can in no criminal matter be heard to urge such privilege; that members of Parliament are privileged against commitment, *qua* process, to compel them to do an act; against commitment for breach of an order of a personal description, if the breach be not accompanied by criminal incidents, and provided the commitment be not in the nature of punishment, but rather in the nature of process to compel a performance; that in all such matters members of Parliament are protected; but that they are no more protected than the rest of the King's subjects from commitment in execution of a sentence, where the sentence is that of a court of competent jurisdiction, and has been duly and regularly pronounced. Now convictions, and the sentences that follow upon them, are of two sorts; either formally upon trial by indictment, or information and verdict, with the consequent judgment; or summarily, but as legally, as formally, by a commitment for contempt, where

there is no other punishment provided, and no other mode of trying the offence.

In the case of the Earl of *Shaftsbury*,* who, when committed by the Lords' House of Parliament, whereof he was a member, brought his writ of *habeas corpus*, Lord Chief Justice *Rainsford*, in delivering the judgment of the court, held that the court had no right to consider the validity or the form of the warrant upon which the earl had been committed. It was enough for that court that a contempt was alleged, and an order of commitment made upon which the warrant proceeded; and the chief justice observed, that if a party guilty of contempt could not be committed to prison, there was then no punishment at all with which he could be visited for his offence.

So, if the party here guilty of the contempt cannot be committed to prison, he must escape punishment altogether; for a breach of the peace is not necessarily incident to the contempt. And yet I should have committed just as much, had there been no breach of the peace, as if the offence of contemning the court had been aggravated by the additional offence of an assault committed upon one of his Majesty's subjects.

There are cases indeed which go a good deal further, and which justify me in denying that what, in common parlance, may be called criminal contempt, must have been committed in order to oust the privilege. If the contempt savours of criminality, and the sentence is penal, that, according to the books, appears to be enough. With respect to the distinction between civil and criminal contempts, denied by Mr. Beames, I agree that there may oftentimes be a difficulty in finding; first, authority for deciding where the line is to be drawn; and, secondly, instances in practice for drawing it. Yet that line has been recognized by the Court of King's Bench, in *Catmur v. Knatchbull*,† and in *Walker v. Lord Grosvenor*.‡ The former was the case of non-performance of an award, made a rule of court; for non-performance being a disobedience, was a contempt of the court, and so might be regarded as technically speaking, and in form, an offence. But the court held that as it related simply to a civil matter, and was rather in the nature of process to compel the performance of a specific act, the matter was in substance not criminal but civil; and it refused to commit the defendant, a member of Parliament, for his disobedience. The same doctrine was laid down in the other case, where the non-compliance was by a peer. But suppose the matter to have been criminal, though without breach of the peace; suppose, for instance, an interruption or obstruction of the court's business by a man having privilege of parliament, getting up, and stopping the court by a long harangue, by ribaldry, by invective, by slander, or by any other indecency which human wit may fancy, or human folly may practise, is it possible to doubt that the court would order its officer to seize him forthwith, and remove and commit him to confinement, as

* 6 State Trials, p. 1269. *How.* ed.

† 7. T. R. 448.

‡ 7. T. R. 171.

a person who, in the face of the court, had been guilty of a contempt of a criminal, and not of a civil kind?*" Indeed, if he was merely removed from the court, that would be enough for the purpose of my argument; because the act of the officer, and, consequently, of the court itself; the bare act of taking the offender and putting him out of court, is as much imprisonment, in contemplation of law, as if he had been thrown into the King's Bench prison. And if the party is privileged from being sent to prison, he is equally privileged from being turned out of court. Yet if the judges had not this power, about 1100 men would have the right to go and interrupt the business of all the courts in the kingdom. The business of licensing sessions, and of quarter sessions in the country, might be entirely put a stop to by one or two gentlemen in the country who might happen to take an interest in obstructing the proceedings, and to be clothed with parliamentary privilege.

But it is not there only that such interruptions may take place. If these privileged individuals choose to carry their political interference so far, the very business of the Court of Hustings, and of the sheriff at elections, where they are not merely supposed, but are almost assumed to take a deep interest, may be put an end to; so that, until we come to Parliament itself, we should here have upwards of a thousand persons who would have the absolute right, uncontrolled by any power save that of the Houses to which they belong, of entering, individually or in a body, into those courts, and not only obstructing all election, but interrupting the administration of all civil and criminal justice.

Nor is the argument *ab inconvenienti* less applicable to equitable jurisdiction than it is to the other branches of judicature. Who are the persons most likely to be guilty of those very offences which this court is most frequently called upon to visit with punishment in order to protect its wards? If other courts have a certain proportion of their suitors in Parliament, this court, from the importance of the matters brought before it, has a much larger proportion there; and if there be any cases in which members of Parliament—young commoners and young lords—are most likely than others to become obnoxious to our jurisdiction, it is precisely in cases relating to the safety of heiresses and other wards.†

* A peer refusing to be sworn is guilty of a contempt for which he may be committed and fined. 2 *Salk.* 278. "No peer or lord of Parliament hath privilege of peerage or of Parliament against being compelled by process of the courts in *Westminster Hall* to pay obedience to a writ of *habeas corpus* directed to him." *Lords' Journals*, vol. xxix. p. 37. *Rex v. Earl Ferrers*, 1. *Burr.* 631.

† That interfering with the custody, or secretly encouraging or abetting the marriage of a ward of court, has always been regarded as a contempt in its nature criminal, and punishable as such by commitment during pleasure, see *Phipps v. Earl of Anglesea*, 1 P. Wms. 696, and *Kiffen v. Kiffen*, and Dr. Yalden's case there cited; *Herbert's case*, 3 P. Wms. 116; *More v. More*, 2 Atk. 157; *Anon.* (Hughes v. Science), 2 Atk. 173; *Smith v. Smith*, 3 Atk. 305; *Butler v. Freeman*, Amb. 301, and the cases referred to in Mr. Blunt's notes; *Brandon v. Knight*, 1 Dick. 160; *Stevens v. Savage*, 1 Ves. jun. 154; *Priestly v. Lamb*, 6 Ves. 421; *Millet v. Rowse*, 7 Ves. 419; *Bathurst v. Murray*, 8 Ves. 74; *Warter v. Yorke*, 19 Ves. 451.

That case may still be supposed in real life, which in the most finished part of the most excellent of his works the poet has so admirably described in the history of a travelled and accomplished profligate, of whom, when in the depth of his desperate fortunes:—

“Stolen from a duel, followed by a nun,”

it is added, as the means of retrieving him—

“But if a borough choose him, not undone.”

And such are the men whom this arrogated privilege would suffer to enter within the precincts of this high court of judicature, and to revel in the contempt of the most delicate, the most important of the functions with which it is entrusted.

I have already given a reason why the authority of decided cases in favour of privilege goes for little, if drawn from times when the most extravagant notions of its extent were entertained; but in the same proportion must any decision against privilege in those times be held so much the stronger in behalf of the law's authority. I will only refer to a case in *Levinz*, which seems to me directly in point—a case never contradicted, never overruled, and calculated by decision to make an end of the argument. I allude to the case of *Wilkinson v. Boulton*, before the Court of King's Bench, when Lord Hale presided, and reported by Mr. *J. Levinz*.*

To an action for false imprisonment there was pleaded a justification, under the custom of *London*, for the mayor and aldermen to have the custody and guardianship of female orphans till twenty-one or marriage, and for any persons taking such from the guardian appointed by the mayor and aldermen, to be brought up before the court and imprisoned. To this plea, there was a demurrer on two grounds, the first of which is only material in so far as it drew from the court a declaration that the matter was criminal for which the party had been imprisoned. The second ground was that the custom as alleged was ill, “because it is a custom to commit without exception of peers.” This demurrer therefore raised the question distinctly, whether or not a peer could be committed for such contempt of the Court of Aldermen, as consisted in taking an orphan out of the custody by them appointed; and the court held it clear that a “peer is not privileged in this case”—I cite the book—“for in *homine replegiando*, where he detains the body, he shall be committed; and there was judgment for the defendant, disallowing the demurrer. The authorities cited by the court, are the Year Book, 11 H. 4, 15, and Fitzherbert's *Natura Brevium*, 68 c. The former was a case of *homine replegiando*, in which the sheriff had returned that the distress had been eloiigned; and one point made was, that the party was

In the Practical Register, (p. 134, *Wyatt's* ed.) a distinction is taken between direct and positive contempts, for which the party may be punished by being committed to the *Fleet during pleasure*, and ordinary contempts, where the commitment is only till the order of the court be obeyed.

* 1 Lev. 162.

a peer of the realm, "issint que capias ne gist pas vers lui." But the court took the distinction I have pursued here, and said "en dett et trespas capias ne gist my vers un count baron et hujusmodi; per ceo que pur cause de lour estate, il est entend que ils ont assets, &c.; mes en c'est case le tort que el fait, de cè que el ne suffre le replevin estre fait, est le cause que son corps sera pris, de quel estate que il soit;" and reference is made to Redman's case, in the time of King Richard. The language of Fitzherbert* is equally precise:—"If there be," says that writer, "an eloignement returned by the sheriff, the plaintiff shall have a *capias in withernam* to take the defendant's body and to keep the same *quousque*, &c., whether he be a peer of the realm, or other common person."

But I am content to rely on the case itself, decided by Lord Hale, and in the same age to which we owe the *habeas corpus* act. It is a case peculiarly in point with the present. The authority with which privilege of peerage was assumed by the demurrer to come in conflict, was that of a city court; the contempt for which it was alleged that privileged persons could not be arrested, was taking away a ward of that court. The Court of King's Bench held that the peerage and its privileges afforded no protection in such a case; and to make the authority more applicable, the court illustrated the decision by referring to the writ of *homine replegiando*, against which, if a peer was refractory, it was held to be clear that he must be committed; that is, if he eloigned the body of the villein, or person sought to be replevied. Now, *Mr. Long Wellesley* has here taken away and detained the ward of this court; he has eloigned that ward. Is it saying too much to add that a privilege which could not protect a peer in the time of Charles II, against the authority of the Mayor's Court, is still less capable in the present day of protecting a commoner against the authority of the great seal?

I have therefore the sanction of *Wilkinson v. Boulton*; I have the authority of the Year Book, in the time of *Henry IV*; I have the great authority of *Fitzherbert*, that a peer of the realm, as well as any other person, shall be committed for obstruction, and contempt in the nature of obstruction to the process of the King's courts. You will find moreover, that the Star Chamber—I refer to the authority of the Star Chamber reluctantly, but it was a regular court, and one little likely to err against privilege—that that court committed a peer of the realm. The peer had disputed its authority; he was committed for an offence in the nature of a contempt, and by a process such as we should use to compel the performance of an act.

Upon the authority, therefore, of all these cases; upon the authority, still higher in my own judgment, of the principle, and upon the reason of the whole matter, the absolute necessity of applying the laws equally to all classes, and the intolerable nuisance which would be suffered, were 1,000 or 1,100 persons to exist in this country placed by privilege of Parliament above the law, and enabled to defy the

* N. B. 155, C.

jurisdiction of all the King's courts—upon all these grounds, I have no doubt whatever that the distinction here is soundly taken—not the distinction laid down by Lord Coke of treason, felony, and breach of the peace on the one side, and offences on the other, where no treason, felony, or breach of the peace has been committed—a distinction inconsistent with itself, fruitful of bad consequences, and incapable of being pursued through the authorities; and that the true grounds upon which to rest the case are these two:—first, that privilege never extends to protect from punishment, though it may extend to protect from civil process; and, next, that privilege never extends to protect even from civil process, where the object of the process is the delivery up of a person wrongfully detained by a party. All the principle, all the authorities, all the reasoning, are in favour of this ground, and it is upon this, and this ground only, that the jurisdiction of all the courts can safely and securely rest.

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